PRESENT-DAY JAPAN

OVERSEAS TRADE NUMBER

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ENGLISH SUPPLEMENT
OF
THE OSAKA ASAHI
AND
THE TOKYO ASAHI
1929

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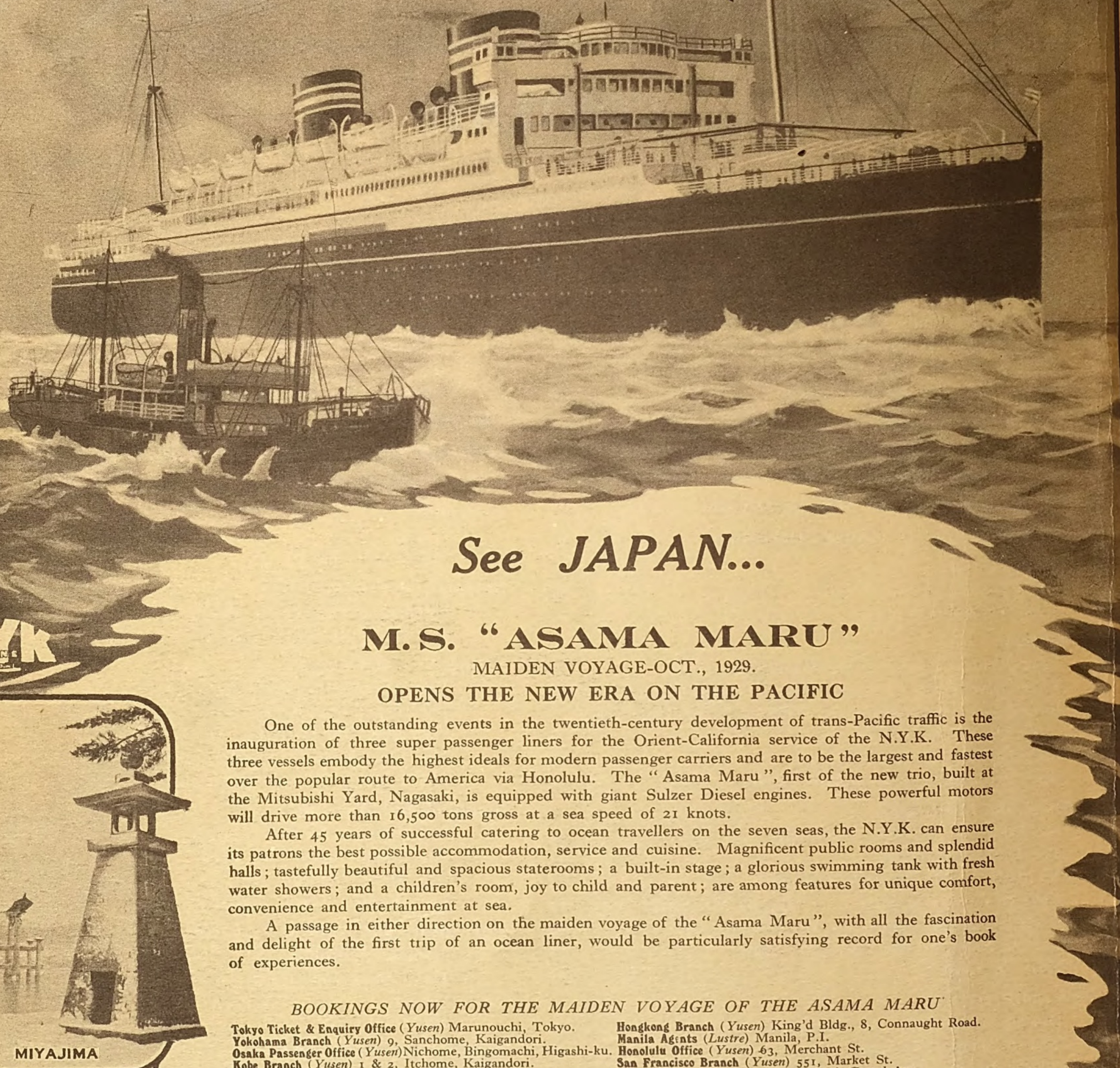
Motor Ships

ASAMA MARU
TATSUTA MARU

16,800 Gross Tons Each
New N.Y.K. Orient-California Liners



See JAPAN...

M.S. "ASAMA MARU"

MAIDEN VOYAGE-OCT., 1929.

OPENS THE NEW ERA ON THE PACIFIC

One of the outstanding events in the twentieth-century development of trans-Pacific traffic is the inauguration of three super passenger liners for the Orient-California service of the N.Y.K. These three vessels embody the highest ideals for modern passenger carriers and are to be the largest and fastest over the popular route to America via Honolulu. The "Asama Maru", first of the new trio, built at the Mitsubishi Yard, Nagasaki, is equipped with giant Sulzer Diesel engines. These powerful motors will drive more than 16,500 tons gross at a sea speed of 21 knots.

After 45 years of successful catering to ocean travellers on the seven seas, the N.Y.K. can ensure its patrons the best possible accommodation, service and cuisine. Magnificent public rooms and splendid halls; tastefully beautiful and spacious staterooms; a built-in stage; a glorious swimming tank with fresh water showers; and a children's room, joy to child and parent; are among features for unique comfort, convenience and entertainment at sea.

A passage in either direction on the maiden voyage of the "Asama Maru", with all the fascination and delight of the first trip of an ocean liner, would be particularly satisfying record for one's book of experiences.

BOOKINGS NOW FOR THE MAIDEN VOYAGE OF THE ASAMA MARU

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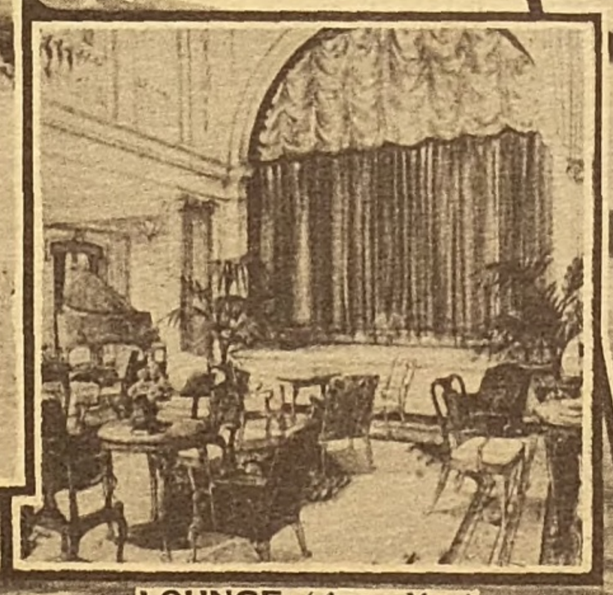
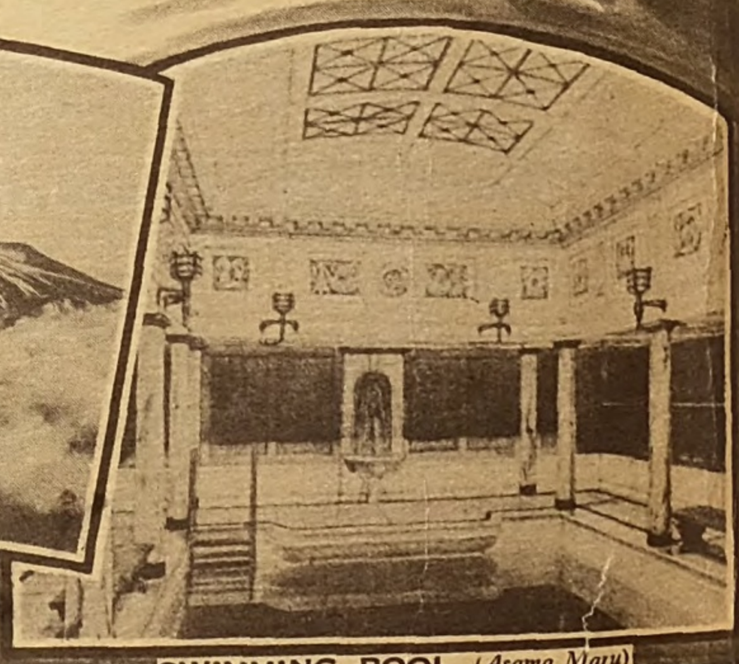

LOUNGE (*Asama Maru*)

FUJI-SAN


SWIMMING POOL (*Asama Maru*)

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PRESENT-DAY JAPAN

OVERSEAS TRADE NUMBER

SPECIAL ENGLISH SUPPLEMENT

OF

THE ASAHI

OSAKA & TOKYO

1929

CONTENTS

Cover Design (A Young Artist and Her Picture of an Early Western Trader in Japan.)

Colored Plates

- Screen Showing Early Western Intercourse with Japan 19
- Cherry Flowers at Kiyomizu 37
- Yamauba, a "No" Mask 55
- An Up-to-date Young Lady of Japan 73

Introduction, (Commerce, a Guarantee of Peace) 21

A Brief History of the Imperial Family, by Dr. Sanji Mikami 22

The Duke of Gloucester as the Garter Envoy.... 28

The Cherry Blossom, by Dr. Manabu Miyoshi 35

The Osaka Asahi and Its Jubilee Celebration.... 93

Political and Social

- The Latest in Japanese Politics 26
- Social Movements in Japan 49

International

- Japan's Political Position in the World Community 33
- Recent Development of Japan's Policy Toward China 42
- International Conferences to be Held in Japan This Year, by Mr. Susumu Aibara.... 70
- Early European Culture in Japan 71
- Japan Celebrates Light's Golden Jubilee 79

Art, Music and Literature

- Old Tales from Japanese Mythology 24
- The Japanese Language 51
- No Masks, by Mr. Toyoichiro Nogami 53
- Notes on Current Japanese Literature, by Mr. Soichi Oya.. 60
- Guide to Buddhist Statues, by Mr. Gemmyo Ono 64
- Issa and Nojiri, by Mr. Glenn W. Shaw 75
- Music in Japan 89

Sports and Recreation

- Dancing in Japan, by Mr. Yukichi Kodera 44
- Modern Alpinism in Japan 46
- Athletic Japan 90

Intimate Japan

- Antipodes, by a Japanese Idler 34
- Asakusa, Center of Plebeian Amusements of Tokyo 78
- The Foods and Drinks of Japan, by a Famous Tokyo Chef .. 86

Aviation

- Aboard the Graf Zeppelin, by Mr. Kichinai Kitano 81
- Present Condition of Aviation in Japan 85

ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL SECTION

Japan's Overseas Trade

- A General Survey 98
- Overseas Trade Policy 99
- Recent Phases of Japan's Import and Export Trade 100
- Japanese Commodities for Export 104
- Promising Goods for Export 107
- Associations Handling Important Export Goods 107
- Associations for Industries Manufacturing Important Articles for Export 111
- Countries Exporting to Japan 111
- Changes in the Destinations of Japanese Exports 111

Ups and Downs of the Trade Ports.... 112

Movement for the Liberty of Trading in Japan 112

Lifting of the Gold Embargo 113

Insurance

- Insurance 113
- Marine Insurance 118

Shipping and Shipbuilding

- Shipping on the Pacific Ocean 114
- Revival of the Shipbuilding Industry 115

Rising New Industries

- The Aircraft Industry 118
- The Paper Industry 129
- Machinery Manufacturing 137
- The Flour-Milling Industry 147
- The Sulphate of Ammonia Industry 147

Spinning and Weaving

- Sericulture in Japan 119
- The Cotton Industry in Japan 124
- The Rayon Industry 125
- The Woollen Textile Industry 143

Agriculture and Natural Resources

- Japanese Agriculture 126
- The Fishing Industry in Japan 133
- Mining 149
- The Oil Industry 149

Recent Economic Conditions

- General Survey of Japan's Finance and Economy 128
- The Money Market 128
- Prices of Commodities and Wages 132
- Trust Business in Japan 143
- The Capital Invested in Various Businesses in Japan 150

Government Finance.... 131

Gas and Electricity

- The Gas Industry 133
- The Electric Industry 136

Exchanges in Japan 139

Railways and Automobiles.... 141

Colonies

- Industry in the Colonies 144
- Creation of the Department of Overseas Affairs 145

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INDEX TO ADVERTISERS

Special Ads:

Administration of Chosen 32
A General view of San-indo, 1..... 152
Misasa Hot Springs, Kinosaki Hot Springs, Iwai Hot Springs, Gunze Filatures, Izumo Electric Co., Yonago Bank, Matsue Bank, Willow Manufactures of Toyooka, and distinguished personages in San-indo.
A General view of San-indo. 2..... 153
Ichihata Electric Railway, Fukuchiyama-machi, Kyoto Chamber of Commerce and Industry, City of Fushimi, City of Yonago, City of Matsue, Fushimi-Library, Fushimi Commercial School, Mr. Hashimoto Masakichi, Nippon Silk Mfg. Co., Hokutan Steam Line and distinguished personages.
City of Tokyo 7
City of Yokohama 142
Hiroshima Prefecture Prosperous Industries 151
Kochi Prefecture, Head-land of Muroto..... 154
Northern Kyushu and its enterprises 134
Osaka Chamber of Commerce and Industry..... 103
Osaka Superior Goods Association 5
Port of Genzan..... 140
Port of Osaka..... 4
Port of Shimizu..... 109
Seaport of Yokkaichi 108
Toyama Prefectural Office 138
World Engineering Congress 13

Agricultural Implements:

Kyoeki Shokai 120
Kunotsubo Nogu Manufactory 120
Kyoei-Sha, Ltd. 120
Mikada Shoten 120
Nakamura Manufactory 120
Sale Co., Ltd. 120
Shimizu Gomei Kaisha 120
Terasaka & Brothers 120
Uyeda Nogu Shokai 120
Yoshida Nogu Manufactory 120

Amusements, Trips and Hotels:

Abundant Hot Springs and Show Places at Hokuriku.. 148
Japanese Government Railways 84
Koshien Stadium 88
Kobe Tourist Bureau 127
Rokko-San Motor Bus Co., Ltd. 95
Rokko Hotel 95
Show Places in Okayama..... 154
Six Famous Big Hot-Springs 146
Takarazuka Hotel 95
Takarazuka Kyu Onsen 95
Western Japan rich in natural beauty 40

Art Antiques, Paintings, Calligraphy, etc.:

Inoue Kumataro Shoten 31
Kawashima & Co. 109
Nakano Zenkuro Shoten 31
Sakata Sakujiro Shoten 31
Yamamoto Shosuke Co. 146
Yamaguchi Tankin, Ltd. 31

Autos, Bicycles and Supplies:

Amatsuji Steel Ball Mfg. Co. 31
Araya Cycle Components, Ltd. 138
Asahi Rim Co. 31
B. Yasuoka & Co. 110
Dai Nippon Bicycle Mfg. Co., Ltd. 110
General Motors Japan Ltd. 18
Mikawaya Co..... 31
Mikawaya Shoten 48
Miyata Works..... 110
Nakatani Shokai , Ltd. 110
Nakamura & Co. 110
Nakajima Rear-car Mfg. Co. 110
Nichibei Shoten, Ltd. 110, 48
Ohzawa Shokai, Ltd. 110
Okamoto Bicycle and Motor Car Mfg. Co., Ltd..... 110
Suehiro Co. 110
Teikoku Motors Co., Ltd. 95
Victor Co..... 110

Banks:

Bank of Japan 130
Fudo Savings Bank, Ltd. 6
Fujimoto Securities Co. 140
Geibi Bank, Ltd. 151
Kashu Bank, Ltd. 138
Mitsubishi Bank, Ltd. 130
Mitsui Bank, Ltd. 130
Morita Bank, Ltd. 138
Owada Bank, Ltd. 138
Sumitomo Bank, Ltd..... 130
Thirty-Fourth Bank, Ltd. 130
Yamaguchi Bank, Ltd. 130
Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd. 130

Building Industry:

Chiyoda Shoten, Ltd. 96
Engineering and Building 96
Hashimoto Garden Constructors 127
Hashimoto Teien Komusho 83
Hiroshima Bath Tub Mfg. Co. 127
Morikawa-Gumi 14
Nippon Aento Kabushiki Kaisha 96
Nitani Stores 96
Osaka Residence Association 95
Onoda Cement Co., Ltd. 30
Risokyo Jutaku Kabushiki Kaisha 127
Shikanosuke Yoshida 96
Sezaki & Co. 14
Takenaka Komuten & Co. 155
Teikoku Suido Kogyo Co., Ltd. 95
Toyo Linoleum Co., Ltd. 96
Ube Cement Co. 123
Yamaguchi Marbles 40

Book Stores and Publishers:

Dai Nippon Yubenkai Kodansha 15
Daiichi Shobo 17
Eibungakusha 17
Hakusuisha 17
Hobunkwan 16
Hokuryukan 17
Ichigensha 142
Kaizosha 17
Kibunkan 48
Koseikaku 16
Kyoiku Kenkyukai 148
Koseisha, Publishers 148
Kyoritsusha 16
Meguro Shoten 142
Minyusha 17
Nihon Tsushin Daigaku Hoseigakkai 148
Ryubunkan 142
Shinkosha 16
Shokwabo & Company 16
Times Shuppansha 148
Toko Shoin..... 17
Y. Okura, Publishers 148

Beverages, Wines and Spirits:

Honkano Co., Ltd. 62
Ishizuka & Company, Ltd. 68
Koetsuka & Co. 14
Kondo Shoten 63
Otsuka Saburobei 127
Wakabayashi & Co. 30
Yamamura Shuzo Kabushiki Kaisha 95

Chemical Industry:

Chosen Chisso Hiryo Co., Ltd. 117
Dai Nippon Celluloid Co., Ltd..... 62
H. Ahrens & Co., Nachf., Agriculture Dept. 120
Honen Oil Co., Ltd. 120
Kusumoto & Co. 59
Nippon Paint Co., Ltd. 14
Sakai Refinery Co. 135
Tagi Fertilizer Manufacturing Co., Ltd. 127
Yamaguchi Red Ochre Manufactory 135
Yamazaki Briquet Factory 135
Yamatogawa Dying Co. 62

Cotton, Rayon, Silk, Wool, Mousseline and Flax:

Fuji Gasu Boseki Kabushiki Kaisha 116
Fukui Refining Co., Ltd. 146
Fukui-ken Weavers' Guild 146
Itoman Shoten, Ltd. 14
Kuramo Shoten 154
Marubeni Shoten, Ltd. 122
Nippon Blanket & Sheeting Manufacturer's Association 14
Nippon Kinuori Company, Ltd. 120
Otsu Orimono Co., Ltd. 14
Spinning Industry in Japan To-day 123
Soko Seiren & Co., Ltd. 146
Toyama Mohan Weaving Co., Ltd. 146
Toyoda Shoten, Ltd. 31
Tsutsui Filatures 154
Teikoku Artificial Silk Co. 123
Yamacho Textile Factory 138

Druggists, Pharmacists and Chemists:

Amako Institute (Panliver) 12
Asada Ame 48
Anmertsu 48
Akamatsu Matashiro Pharmacy 77
Dai Semmon Gijutsusho..... 97
Eizo Shiotani 97
Fukuroya Pharmacy 77
Fujisawa Co. (Macnin) 10
Fujisaki Oil and Fat Manufactory 122
Gion Medicinal Herb Institute 97
Goto Denshin Hompo, Ltd. 127
Hio Chomeido (Suppon Ame) 77
Hayashida Sowhonke 77
Hayashida Sowhonten..... 146
Iwasaki Daikaido Partnership 68
Iwao Shotaro 97
Imazu Chemical Laboratory 31
Ihei Fujimura (Kishinko) 77
I. Horiuchi Shoten 97
Kondo Chemical Works 77
K. Tomoda & Co. 116
Kizawa Beri-beri Institute 77
Komatsu Kurogusuri Honke 146
Kokando, (The Medicine House) 138
Katsuraya Pharmacy Co., Ltd. 83
Kazuma Nakai 97
Katsumura Shoten, Ltd. 127
Maruishi Pharmaceutical Co. 48
Mentholatum 48
Morooka Tennendo Pharmacy 116
Nishi Kinsekido Pharmacy 58
Nishiyama Kenkyu Yakuin 95
Nippon Jutan Isshiki So-Honten 83
Nishiyama Chemical Drug Institute 97
Oxyhealer Shorei-Kai 142
Ovaltine 48
Okamoto Zenkaido 48
Osaka Juzen Hospital Tubercular Institute 77, 138
Physico-Chemical Industries, Ltd. 11
Shozaemon Kubota (Sokkosan) 77
Sanrido Pharmacy 77
Saiyoji Temple 154
Saichi Nakashima 154
Solar Ray Society 77
Sakai Refinery Co. 122
Shono Genzo 77
S. Ito & Co. 58
Tokyo Shinryoho Kenkyusho 116
Tokyo Radiolayer Shokai 142
Teikoku Insect Powder Mfg. Co. 59
Tanabe Gohei Shoten 95
Yasuda Electrical Apparatus Manufactory 97
Yagyu Reitoku-Do 127
Yamahiko Jochugiku Co., Ltd. 68
Yamato Shokai (Pocket Warmer) 12

Dry Goods:

Arimoto Yofuku Honten 31
Darumaya Department Store 138
Hamaguchi & Co., Ltd. 30
Horii & Co. 142
Hunting Caps 48
Inagaki & Co., Ltd. 146
Kono Seibo & Co., Ltd. 135
Mizuno Undoyohin Co., Ltd. 95
Miyazaki Tansu Osaka Branch 31
Nakagawa Shoten 68
Nakanishi & Co. 97
Namiki Mfg. Co., Ltd. 142
"Taka" (Hawk) Felt Hats 48

Electrical Lights, Power, Railways, Gas, Motors and Engineering:

Asahi Dry Battery Co., Ltd. 97
Chugoku Godo Electric Co., Ltd. 154
Furukawa Electric Co., Ltd. 116
Japan Sea Electric Co. 146
Kyoto Electric Light Co., Ltd. 138
Kyushu Electric Railway Co. 134
Kyushu Hydro-Electric Power Co. 134
Mikuni Awara Electric Railway Co., Ltd. 138
Okayama Electric Light Co., Ltd. 154
Osaka Transformer Co., Ltd. 97
Sanyo Chuo Hydro-Electric Co., Ltd. 154
Shibaura Engineering Works, Ltd. 116
Sugiyama & Co. 120

Exchanges and Brokers:

Exchanges in Japan To-day 140
Kurokawa Shoten, Ltd. 68
Nagoya Stock Exchange, Ltd. 140
Tanaka Shinzo 140
Tokyo Stock Exchange, Ltd. 116
Yamaichi Securities & Finance Co., Ltd. 142

Financial and Trust Companies:

Chuetsu Mujin Kaisha, Ltd. 138
Hyogo Consolidated Trust Co., Ltd. 6
Kyodo Trust Co., Ltd. 83
Konoike Trust Co., Ltd. 116
Mitsui Trust Co., Ltd. 142
Nippon Trust Bank Co., Ltd. 6

Glass Industry:

Asahi Glass Factory 135
Ishida Glass Cutting Factory 135
Katsu Glass Cutting Factory 135
Miyasuzugo Glass Factory 135
Niwa Vacuum Bottles Co. 135
Shimizu Tetsugo Store 135
Tami Glass Manufactory 135
Tsuchide Glass Factory 135
Yamanaka Tatsu Co. 135
Yagi Vacuum Ware Manufactory 135

Hospitals:

Ando Hospital 58
Arisawa Eye-Hospital 58
Kodama Hospital 58
Kishoen-Momose-Institute 58
Kitano Hospital 58
Ohno Chirurgery Hospital 58
Prof. A. Sata 58
Takasu Hospital 58

Importers and Exporters:

Abdalla Khimji 140
B. Banno & Co. 48, 117
Japan Exporting Knit Goods Industrial Unions ..102, 103
Osaka Foreign Trade Association 13

Insurance Companies:

Daido Life Ins. Co. 116
Nippon Life Assurance Co., Ltd. 117

Iron, Steel, Machinery, Metal Works and Accessories:

Enshu Weaving Machinery Mfg. Co., Ltd. 109
Ehara Belt Manufactory 95
Fujiwara's Helds Manufactory, Ltd. 122
Goto Shuttle Mfg. Co., Ltd. 122
Hinoya Iron Works 95
Hashimoto Works 122
Hasegawa & Co., Ltd. 122
Izumi Shuttle Mfg. Co., Ltd. 122
Japan Trading & Mfg. Co., Ltd. 122
Kushida Iron Works 122
K. Ohnishi & Co., Ltd. 122
Kitagawa Busaku Co. 110
Kubota Iron Works 62
Mikuni Iron Works 83
Matsui Iron Works, Ltd. 122
Nagatani Reeling Machinery Manufactory 122
Naito Works 48
Nikko Shoten 138
Ohoto Yakichi Stores 122
Suzuki Fire Engine Mfg. Co. 5
Sumitomo Steel Tube and Copper Works, Ltd. 102
Tanaka Machinery Works, Ltd. 122
Toyoda Automatic Loom Works, Ltd. 88

Mining:

Aso Shoten 134

Musical Instruments, Watches, Cameras and Stationery:

"Kokka" Record Mfg. Co..... 127
K. Hattori & Co., Ltd. 116
Nakamura Note Book Mfg. Co. 14
Nippon Gakki Seizo Co., Ltd. 109
R. Konishi & Co. 95
Sakata Seisakusho 151
Suzuki Violin Factory 109
Sawai & Co. 152

Paper and Paper Manufacturers:

Daido Yoshiten, Ltd. 9
Fuji Paper Co., Ltd. 8
Fuji Yoshiten 9
Hakushinsha, Ltd. 9
Karafuto Kogyo Kabushiki Kaisha 8
Kato Paper Mill 138
Oji Seishi Kabushiki Kaisha 8
Okura Yoshiten, Ltd. 9

Printing and Binding, Printing Ink, and Typewriters:

Japan Printing & Book Binding Co. 57
Japan Typewriter Co. 4
K. Kawashima (Printing Machine Materials & Chemicals) 57
Leighton Colour Co., Ltd. 57
Nakata Insatsu-Sho (Printers) 57
Nippon Kinpun-Haku Kogyo Kaisha (Printing Materials) 57
Nippon Metal Lacquer Ware Manufactory 14
Okada Tosha-Do Honten 152
Osaka Printing Ink Mfg. Co., Ltd. 138
Sakata Shokai (Printing Ink) 57
Seihan Printing Company, Ltd. 62
S. Morikawa (Printers) 57
Takimoto Seihon-Sho (Book Binding & Printing) 57
Tsuda Yosaburo & Co. (Ground Metal) 57
Umehara Printing Ink Co., Ltd. 9
Yoda Machine Co., Ltd. (Printing Presses) 57

Provisions:

Anglo-Swiss Confectionary Co., Ltd. 61
Dai Nippon Brewery Co., Ltd. 63
Ezaki Company 4
Formosan Pineapples and Woolung Tea 123
Imamura-Ya Company 4
Japan Central Tea Association, Tokyo 41
Kawamata Shoyu Kabushiki Kaisha 62
Kanten Seisan Kumiai Jimusho 63
Kichibei Shiono 63
Kikuichi Soy Brewing Co. 127
Kagoshima Confectionary Co. 127
Kurokawa Yohei & Co. 63
Meiji Conf. Co., Ltd. 142
Matsushita Co., Ltd. 63
Morinaga Conf. Co., Ltd. 116
Motoki Shokai 63
Nisshindo's Sponge Cake 146
Nippon Wheat Gluten Co., Ltd. 154
Nakano 4
Ryosensha Kobayashi 63
Sasada & Co. 63
Shibutani Rihei Shoten 31
Shizuoka-ken Tea Association, Shizuoka 41
Tsuruya Hachiman 31
Toyo Food-stuff Institute 57
Tsubota Soy Brewing Co. 4
Tomiya 31
Ukichi Nakamura 63

Rubber Goods:

Hannan Rubber Co., Ltd. 152
Harimaya Rubber & Co. 59
Iida & Co., Ltd. 59
I. K. Rubber Manufactory 59
Ikuno Rubber Manufactory, Ltd. 59
Kuwahara & Co., Ltd. 59
Kyowa Rubber Factory 59
Kyuho Rubber Manufactory 135
Maru A Rubber Manufactory 59
Mutsuda Rubber Co., Ltd. 135
Naigai Rubber Co., Ltd. 14
Nippon Sock Co., Ltd. 47
Okabe Rubber Manufactory 59
Okada Rubber Goods Manufactory 59
Okagaki Aluminum Foundry 135
Oyama Rubber Manufactory 135
Settsu Rubber Co., Ltd. 110
Takagi Iron Works 59
Takekawa Rubber Works 68
Tamura Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd. 151
Yokozuna Rubber Co. 59

Shoes, Boots and Supplies:

Cindow & Co. 12
Murata & Umetani, Ltd. 12
Osakaya Shoten 12
Ozawa & Co. 12
Chiyoda Shoes Co. 12
Standard Shoes Co. 12

Toilet Preparations & Sundries:

Kobayashi Asa Shoten 46
Matsumoto Co. 30
Need Toilet Co. 46
Oguraya 46
Otsuki Saihoen 46

Transportation, Railways, Steamers and Warehouses:

Hanwa Electric Railway Co., Ltd. 80
Hokuriku Steamship Co., Ltd. 138
Hizume Trading Co., Ltd. 84
Japan Air Transport Co., Ltd. 97
Nara Electric Railway Co., Ltd. 142
Nisshin Kisen Kaisha 138
N. Y. K. Ltd. 138
O. S. K. Ltd. 138
South Manchuria Railway Co. 14
Setsuyo Shosen Co., Ltd. 109
Yokkaichi Warehousing & Transport Co., Ltd. 109

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KOHO-DO,
Sukiyabashi, Kyobashi-ku, Tokyo.
MANNEN-SHA (See page 83)
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1-chome, Ginza, Kyobashi-ku, Tokyo.
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THE AIMS AND ORGANIZATION OF THE OSAKA SUPERIOR GOODS ASSOCIATION (THE OSAKA YURYOHIN KYOKAI)

By Zenzaburo Shibata

Governor of Osaka Prefecture and President of the Association

In Japan there is no other society or association working for the same purpose and with the same organization as the Osaka Superior Goods Association, which stands for the turning out of goods of superior quality at reasonable prices and in which the authorities and citizens of Osaka have gone into partnership. It now has a membership of 123 bona fide manufacturers, qualified and chosen from among the manufacturers in Osaka Prefecture.

The goods produced by the members of this association cover almost every description of commodities. They are provisions, toilet articles, spinning machines, machinery, paints and dyestuffs, electrical appliances, drugs, aluminium utensils, leather goods, decorative goods, etc., and other requirements of the community.

Here it must be clearly stated that though the association aims at producing goods of superior quality at reasonable prices, it does not aim at having manufacturers sell at a loss. Instead it must be seen to that the interests of manufacturers and dealers are protected by leaving them a reasonable margin of profit. For this reason it is advocated that the association should maintain "adequate prices."

As a 50 sen coin must at all times be accepted at its face value, so must goods of superior quality be taken at their full value. For this end to be realized, the association must have a strong and dependable selling organization, working on the principle of sound and sane business ethics.

More detailed information will be furnished to those who apply to

Osaka Superior Goods Association

Care of Commercial Bureau, Osaka Prefectural Office.

THE FIRST REQUISITE OF FOREIGN TRADE

By Kiyoshi Nakarai

Chief of the Bureau of Prefectural Administration of Osaka and Vice-President of the Association

During the war boom there was a remarkably active shipment of Japanese goods abroad, resulting unfortunately in the manufacture of inferior goods for export on the part of a few manufacturers. This immediately caused foreigners to brand Japanese goods with a bad name, which is not easy to eradicate. We must make whole-hearted efforts to recover the confidence of our customers abroad and turn out goods of superior quality, the first requisite of successful foreign trade.

A committee of 11 experts carefully select and choose the members of the association from among a great many applicants. In determining the eligibility of applicants, their commercial standing, capital and personality, the quality of the goods they manufacture, the raw materials used, etc. are taken into account. Therefore, the members having gone through such an acid test, they are more than a credit to their respective lines; and those dealing with them will get the satisfaction they have the right to expect.

AD.

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Goods arriving at and being shipped from the port of Osaka

According to the returns of the Osaka City Office, there was in 1928 the total number of merchant ships arriving at the port of Osaka was 181, 279, with a tonnage of 27,007,992 tons. This is an increase of 2,646 ships, or 1,547,854 tons, over the preceding year, and an increase of 29,588 ships, or 5,784,208 tons, over 1919. In 1919 not a single ship of 10,000 tons came into the port, while in 1928,22 ships of this size entered.

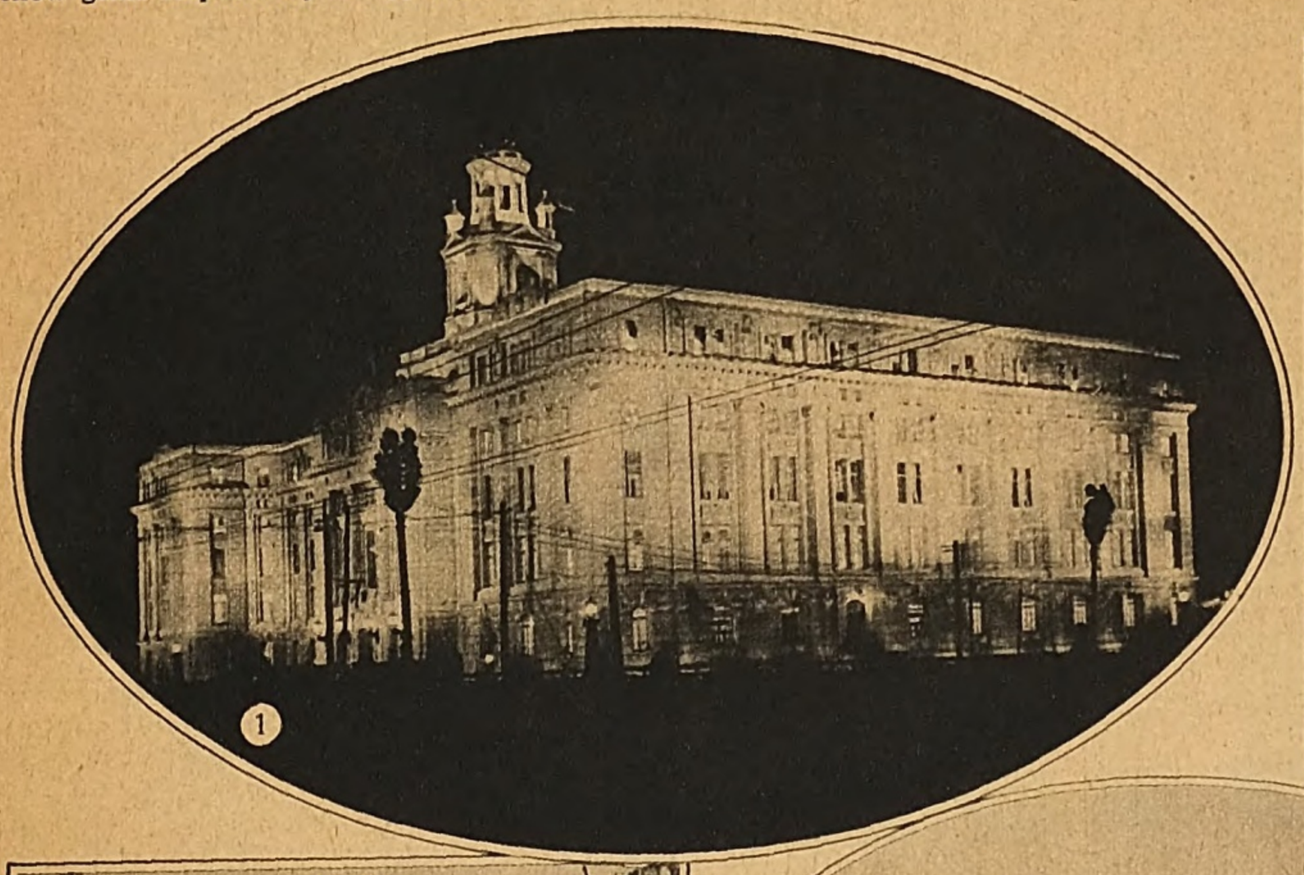
There is a steady increase in the trade done through the port. During 1928, goods forwarded from the port reached 4,261,000 tons, worth ¥1,655, 691,000, and goods arriving amount to 10,372,000 tons, worth ¥1,215,095,000. As compared with the preceding year, these figures show gains respectively of 496,000 tons, or ¥182,804,000, and 367,000 tons, or ¥2,749,000.

Of the various reasons for this expansion, the most important is a growing tendency for the foreign trade center of west Japan to shift from Kobe to Osaka, which is a great producer and consumer.

This is clearly seen in the following figures: in 1913 of the total exports of Japan, Osaka shipped 11.6%, Kobe 26.9% Yokohama 50% and the remaining ports 11.5%, and of the total imports, Osaka handled 5.7%, Kobe 47.5%, Yokohama 32.2% and the rest 14.6%; while in 1928, Osaka shipped 20.7% of the exports, Kobe 32%, Yokohama 37.6% and the rest 9.7%, and of the imports Osaka handled 13.5%, Kobe 40%, Yokohama 27.9% and the rest 18.6%.

The Song of Osaka

Ever since the ancient days of Takatsu Hall,
Wealth has piled on wealth as age succeeded age.
Smoke from out the people's fires still rises here for all.
Life increases in the City of Osaka!
Life increases in the City of Osaka.



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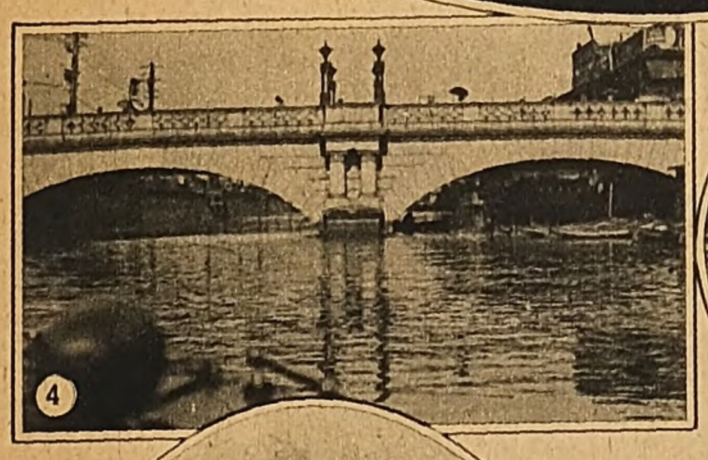

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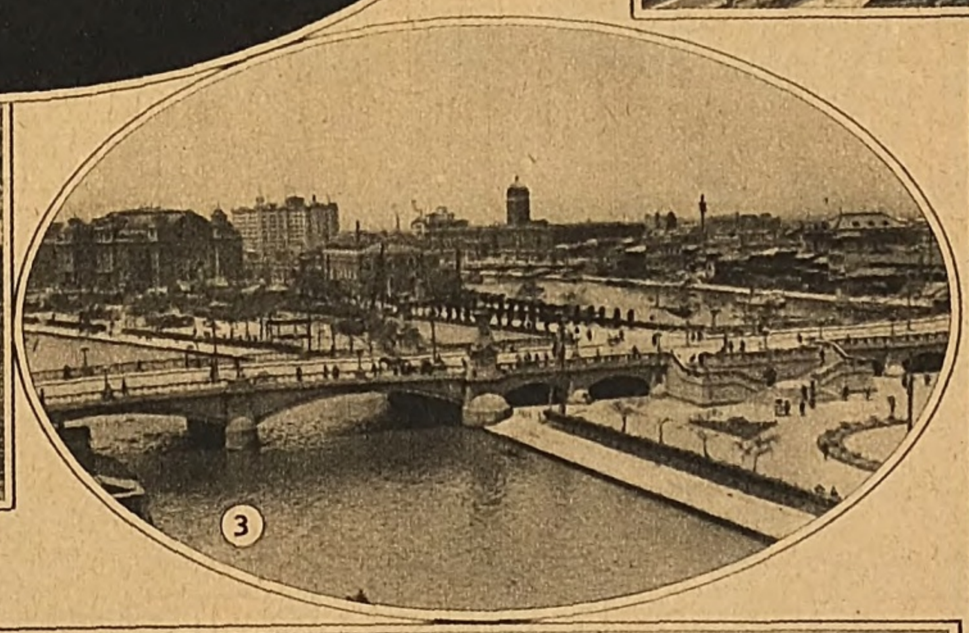

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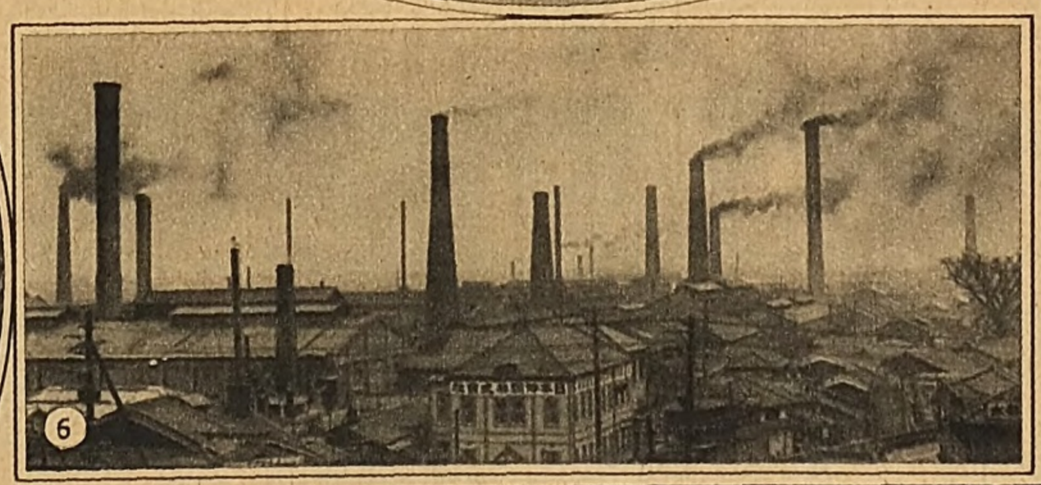

6

PHOTOS:

1. City Hall
2. Port View as seen by an Air Craft
3. Modern Buildings
4. One of Street Bridges
5. Crowded Down Town
6. Manufacturing Zone
7. Old Castle—Magnificent Construction

Savings Accounts ¥752,504,485
Total Amount of Deposits..... ¥363,523,703.51
Deposits with Government..... ¥121,180,234.95
Profits allocated to fixed savings depositors since the latter half of 1921 ..... ¥7,860,000

THE
Fudo Savings Bank Ltd.

President:
MOTOJIRO MAKINO Esq.

Head Office:
TOKYO, JAPAN.

Home Branches:
Principal cities and Towns throughout Japan.

Hyogo Daido Shintaku Kabushiki Kaisha
(Hyogo Consolidated Trust Co., Ltd.)

HOME OFFICE: Sakaemachi-dori, Kobe, Japan.
BRANCH OFFICE: Fushimimachi, Osaka, Japan.

THE
Nippon Trust Bank Ltd.

Head Office: IMABASHI, HIGASHI-KU, OSAKA.

President:
Mr. T. KAWAKAMI

Capital Paid-up - -¥17,500,000
Reserve Funds - - - ¥2,500,000

Special facilities offered for foreigners who are interested in The Osaka Stock Exchange.

AD.

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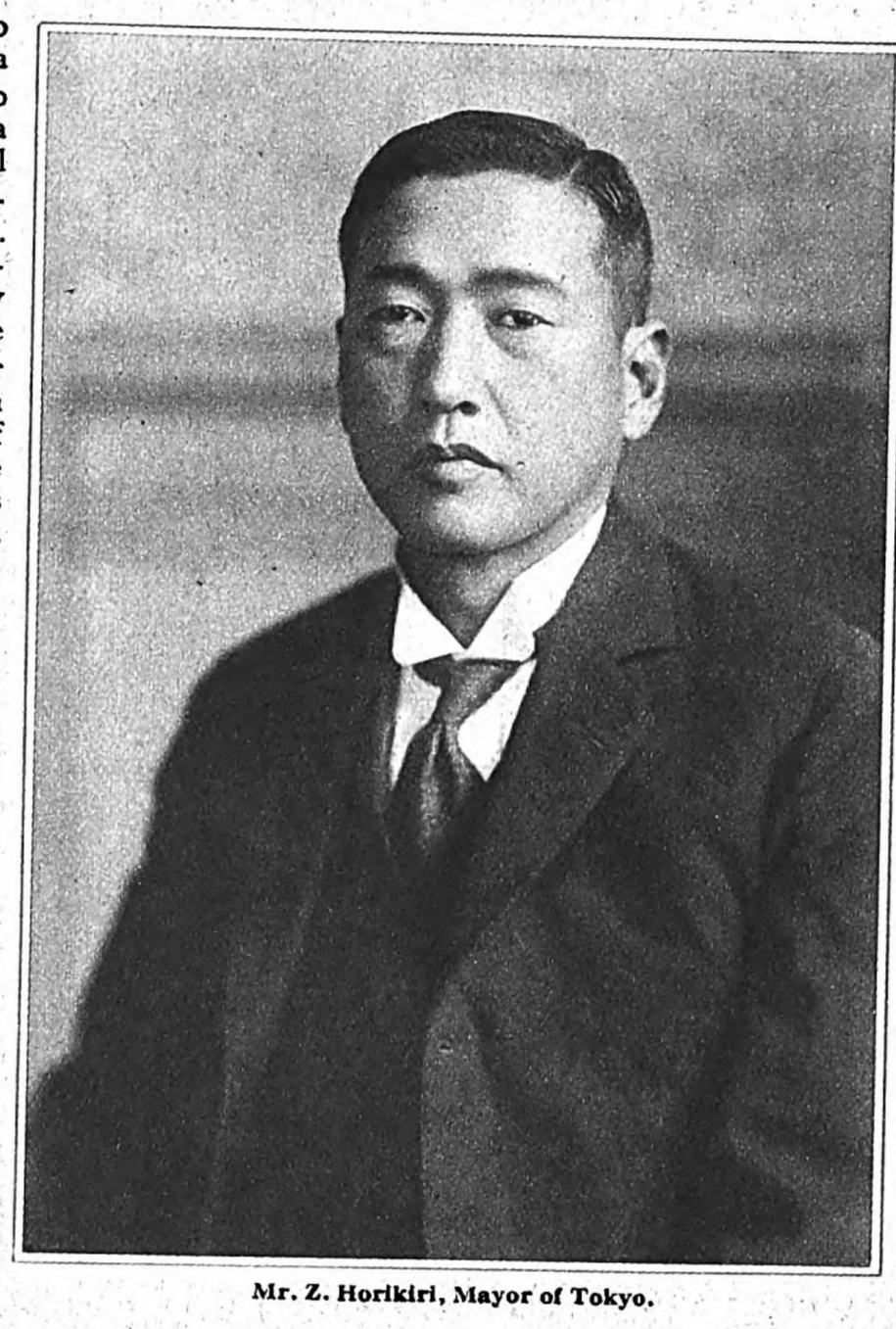
TOKYO, THE CAPITAL OF JAPAN

Its History, Great Earthquake and Fire, Reconstruction Work, and City Administration

WHEN the ancient Japanese culture attained its height ten centuries ago in the western cities of Nara and Kyoto, the Musashino Plain where Tokyo is now located was utterly desolate and barbarians were supreme there. Ota Dokan, a feudal warrior, chose a hill on the shores of the Bay of Yedo, where the waters of several rivers join the sea, to build a fortress and a home in 1486. This marked an epoch for the growth of Yedo into the Capital of the Tokugawa Shogunate for 268 years and then into that of the Empire. Yedo was but a straggling town when the first Shogun, Iyeyasu, made a pompous entry, but later it grew into a great metropolis with a population of two millions, remaining as the Empire's Capital *de facto* for nearly the ensuing three centuries. Yedo, with the downfall of feudalism and great political change following the monarchy restoration, was made the Capital of Japan with its name changed to Tokyo. But it sank into insignificance for some time as the three hundred feudal daimyos who formed the integral part of the centuries-old glory of Yedo withdrew to their territories and many citizens took shelter from the threatened social unrest born of the sweeping political change. The city then lost a half of its population. The new-born Tokyo has however fought its own way to a stage of greater prosperity and importance until it has become the greatest city of Japan in name and reality. Within half a century after the Meiji Restoration the city had made a phenomenal development into a city with a population of 2,200,000 and a municipal budget involving ¥280,000,000. The great earthquake that overtook the Kwanto district in September, 1923, turned the best part of the city into heaps of debris. Its rehabilitation to its former prosperity once seemed to be beyond human accomplishment but through the unflinching courage of the citizens the reconstruction work of the Capital was started without delay. Six years of untiring effort have begun to bear fruit. The district devastated by the great fire following the earthquake was 34,600,000 square meters, or 43.5 per cent. of the total area of 77,480,000 and the number of houses burnt down was 219,000 with a total area of 1,021,100 square meters, or 61 per cent. of the total area before the calamity. Victims of the conflagration numbered 1,484,000, or 59 per cent. of the total population of Tokyo. The property loss is estimated at ¥3,700,000,000. In the extent of the damage done, no other great catastrophe of the world can be compared with the Kwanto calamity. It produced 20 times the devastated area and 37 times the amount of damage of the London conflagration of 1666, four times the burnt area and 12 times the amount of damage of the great Chicago fire of 1871 and about three times the burnt area and five times the damage of the great San Francisco earthquake of 1906. Indeed, it was unprecedented. An Imperial message given in connection with the Capital reconstruction served to set the popular uncertainty at rest and the citizens set about "putting their house in order" in earnest. In view of the great importance of the task, the Government drafted a plan to carry out the reconstruction of Tokyo and Yokohama at the expense of the Government, Tokyo Prefecture, Kanagawa Prefecture, Tokyo City and Yokohama City, giving financial support to these prefectures and cities. As regards the enterprises undertaken by the Government, the land readjustment or re-plotting covers a devastated area of 300,000 square meters which is divided into 65 lots. Of these, the Government readjusts 15 lots covering 6,006,000 square meters and Tokyo City 50 lots covering 30,690,000 square meters. Other enterprises undertaken by the Government include the rebuilding of 52 main thoroughfares with a total length of about 1,700 kilometers and widths between 22 and 73 meters and of 96 bridges. The reconstruction plan consists of the laying out or extension of roads, bridges, canals, parks and other works incidental to city planning. Out of the total Government appropriation for the work amounting to ¥32,270,000, a subsidy of ¥18,000,000 is given to Tokyo City for the construction of a fire-proof zone. Among the principal enterprises undertaken by Tokyo Prefecture are the rebuilding of national roads with a length of 16,212 meters in all, the making of a number of circular and radiating roads in various directions with Tokyo Station as the center, ten of the radiating lines with a total length of 11,967 meters, and the erection of five middle schools under the control of the prefectural government burnt by the fire. The land re-plotting is the principal object of the enterprises executed by Tokyo City and the construction of 122 roads of 139,146 meters, of 134 bridges, and of primary schools and other buildings are subsidiary works. Other minor enterprises include social welfare works, the erection of a central wholesale market, hospitals, small parks, waterworks and sewers etc. The total cost of the reconstruction work is estimated at about ¥709,000,000, including ¥337,000,000 for the Government, ¥350,000,000 for Tokyo City and ¥22,000,000 for Tokyo Prefecture. This gigantic task has made favorable headway since it was started six years ago and will be completed by the end of March, 1930. City planning work on such an elaborate scale as has been effected in such a large city as Tokyo is without parallel in the history of city planning.



Mr. Z. Horikiri, Mayor of Tokyo.

How to carry out the land readjustment program that forms the nucleus of the reconstruction work has been a very difficult problem that has taxed the minds of the authorities concerned and complicated the work of reconstruction. The purchase of the necessary land required for construction, reconstruction, enlargement or improvement of roads, canals, parks, etc., with proper compensation had been carried out on like occasions in former times, but this method did not answer the purpose of the present reconstruction work, which needed extensive areas of land. Not only would it have involved enormous expense but the measure would have rendered homeless about 200,000 citizens dwelling in the devastated district of Tokyo alone. Another disadvantage was that the expropriation of dwelling land required for road-making or improvement by means of purchase would render the remaining land irregular in shape and size according to the topographical nature of the locality. In view of these defects, the authorities concerned adopted a re-plotting system in framing the present reconstruction plan. Measures dealing with this system had made fair development in Western cities but were mostly applied to suburban districts sparsely populated. Various new devices and measures had to be elaborated to make the method adaptable to the burnt areas of Tokyo and Yokohama, where over 203,000 semi-permanent barracks with a dense population were crowded together. Briefly explained, the re-plotting or readjustment of building land consisted first of fixing the position or location of roads, canals, parks and other public institutions within a certain prescribed area of land and then expropriating the required space of land for the aforementioned purposes, the remainder of the land being alloted as building sites and re-distributed among the former owners of land or lease-holders in due proportion to the dimensions of each lot that existed before the re-plotting. In putting the plan into execution nearly the whole of the devastated district of Tokyo, or 9,200,000 tsubo out of about 11,000,000 tsubo of the total area, has been cut up into 65 re-plotting divisions and each division has been subjected to the re-plotting process, the blocks within each division being again cut up into lots and new lots distributed among the owners of former lots. What most stood in the way of the reconstruction work was the removal of buildings from their original sites to newly alloted substitute sites. As soon as the allotment of substitute lots was settled, removal orders were issued to the owners of buildings, fixing the period within which the removal is to be completed. Compensation has been paid for the damage sustained by the house owners and tenants through the removal of their houses as well as the losses incurred by those shopkeepers who had to suspend business temporarily. The number of houses ordered removed was 203,000 in Tokyo and 19,000 in Yokohama. The removal of such a large number of houses within a short period of time was no easy task, but, nevertheless, the work has made fair progress, thanks to the clear understanding and self-sacrificing spirit of the general public.

As regards educational provisions, the city lost no time in adopting proper measures to meet the situation after the disaster. The city now has 203 primary grade schools of various categories with 206,947 students and 4,928 teachers. There are besides many schools for secondary education. The city also has 22 young men's training institutions, controls young men's associations and owns municipal libraries in 22 different parts of the city. Social provisions are another feature of the city's enterprises. Employment offices, public nurseries and offices to give advice upon the health of children, women's workhouses, plebeian dining halls, simple homes, public bathhouses, pawnshops are controlled by the city. The city authorities are bending their efforts to the promotion of the sanitary welfare of the citizens and carry on sundry hygienic enterprises. A large waterworks extension on a 10 year program at a cost of ¥45,000,000 is to be undertaken by the city. It now supplies water to 350,000 houses, and the standard daily supply capacity totals 480,000 cubic meters. The thorough reconstruction of sewage works destroyed by the earthquake has nearly been completed at a cost of ¥43,500,000. The reconstruction of sewers over the Yamanote district will be carried out at a cost of ¥75,000,000 on a program extending over more than 10 years. Tokyo presents an entirely new appearance The proposed gigantic harbor construction plan to cost ¥326,000,000 will give the finishing touches to the importance of Tokyo as the greatest city of the Empire. Tokyo runs its electric trolleys and supply on a large scale among other public utility enterprises.

In conclusion, the Greater Tokyo planning may be referred to briefly. The new city limits, according to the plan, will be extended to districts within 10 miles of Tokyo Station and it is expected that 84 towns and villages in Tokyo's suburbs will be involved in the sphere. The total area constituting Greater Tokyo is 171,357 square kilometers, the number of houses 1,032,616 and the population 4,569,703, as at the end of 1927. The time will come at no distant date when the present Tokyo will develop into a Greater Tokyo in name and reality.

AD.

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FUJI PAPER CO., LTD.

The idea of establishing THE FUJI PAPER COMPANY, LIMITED, dates back to about 1880. Cries were heard for the necessity of starting a paper milling industry. Investigation was started in 1882 by Mr. Torakichi Yamada, engineer of the Home Department, acting upon the advice of Mr. Kaname Haraguchi, chief engineer of the defunct Engineering Department, who suggested that motor power could be generated by water turbine at the foot of Mt. Fuji. The Fuyo Paper Company was going to be established, but the plan was cancelled due to a drop in paper note value and an economic shake-up. Sanction was obtained in November, 1887, for the organization of the Fuji Paper Company with a capital of ¥250,000. The head office was located at the present site, Sanjikkenbori, Kyobashi-ku, Tokyo, in January, 1888, and the construction work on a mill was started at Takaokamura, Fuji-gun, Shizuoka-ken. The factory was put in operation in January, 1890. This is the Fuji No. 1 factory at present. Despite the oppression of foreign paper and the severe competition among mills following the economic depression, the company, as the originator of mechanical pulp in Japan, endeavored to prevent the importation of foreign paper. Business expansion marked the period between 1895 and 1905. During these ten years the company solidified its basis and expanded its factory equipment. The company also exploited markets in China. The second period of expansion took place between 1906 and 1913. The construction of plants, the merger of minor paper companies, the increase of production, the opening of sub-branches and sundry other forward looking policies were adopted during the period. The replenishment of equipment, the improvement of the system, the increase of productive capacity, the expansion of market spheres abroad, the erection of sulphite pulp factories in Hokkaido, the absorption of the Yokkaichi Paper Mill and many other leading mills, the establishment of the first craft paper industry in Japan and many other industrial enterprises featured the period. The completion of the Shiritoru Mill, unrivalled in magnitude in 1927, deserves special mention. As Japan gained in strength at every turn of the Sino-Japanese War, the Russo-Japanese War and the World War, so the Fuji Paper Company grew steadily with the development of the national destiny. The company is capitalized at ¥77,700,000 and has invested ¥177,000,000 in various enterprises. It has 16 plants and its annual production of foreign-style paper reaches 660,000,000 pounds, which represents about 43 per cent. of Japan's whole production. The company produces printing paper, news print and various other papers. The craft paper produced at its Ochiai Mill marks the first venture of the kind in Japan and enjoys a good reputation among the consumers. The Fuji Paper Company is headed by Mr. Heizaburo Okawa, president, with the able assistance of Messrs. Kikujiro Ogasawara and Teizaburo Takahashi, both senior managing-directors, Mr. Keizo Suhara, junior managing-director, and the other directors. 9: 30: 1929.

Manufacturers of Paper and Pulp.

ESTABLISHED - - - - - - - - - 1872

OJI SEISHI KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(OJI PAPER MANUFACTURING CO., LTD.)

Capital - - - - - - - - - Yen 65,900,000

Annual Output: 420,000,000 lbs. of Paper and 95,000 Tons of Pulp.

MAIN OFFICE:

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Kameido Mill	,,	,,	Kokura Mill	Fukuoka	,,
Miyakojima Mill	Osaka	,,	Tomakomai Mill	Hokkaido	
Yodogawa Mill	,,	,,	Odomari Mill	Saghalien	

Toyohara Mill	Saghalien		Shingishu Mill	Korea	
Noda Mill	,,				

DIRECTORS:

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Kikujiro Takashima	Managing Director		Nagabumi Ariga	,,	
Naoki Takata	,,	,,	Ken Hayashi	,,	
Kenichi Inouye	,,	,,	Kikujiro Ogasawara	,,	
Tadashi Adachi	,,	,,	Jusuke Horikoshi	,,	

Jiro Tanaka	Director
Tetsusaburo Hara	,,
Shu Inouye	,,

Capital - - - Yen 70,000,000 ESTABLISHED - - - - - - 1903

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(KARAFUTO PULP & PAPER MFG. CO., LTD.)

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ANNUAL OUTPUT { 110,000 Tons of Sulphite Pulp. / 45,000 Tons of Mechanical Pulp. / 110,000 Tons of Paper.

HEAD OFFICE: TOMARIORO, KARAFUTO (SAGHALIEN.)

BUSINESS OFFICE: MARUNOUCHI, TOKYO, JAPAN.

MILLS:

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TOMARIORO MILL	Tomarioro, Karafuto (Saghalien).	YATSUSHIRO MILL	Yatsushiro, Kumamoto Prefecture.
ESUTORU MILL	Esutoru, Karafuto (Saghalien).	NAKATSU MILL	Nakatsu, Gifu Prefecture.

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President: HEIZABURO OKAWA. Vice-President: EIHACHIRO TANAKA.
Managing Directors: TAROKICHI HASEGAWA, KOZABURO FUJITA & MINORU SUSUKI.

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The Institute of Physical and Chemical Research

1. Endowment and Establishment

The Institute of Physical and hemical Research, founded March, 917, is a corporation with an en-owment of ¥6,228,700, of which ¹1,000,000 was an Imperial Gift, ²2,000,000 a Government subsidy, id ¥3,228,700 the total of contribu-ons from official sources and individ-als.

The Institute occupies a site cover-g 12,000 tsubo (1 tsubo=36 square et), in the two wards of Hongo and oishikawa, Tokyo.

2. Purposes

The Institute conducts investigations the pure sciences of physics and emistry, aiming at their industrial velopment, and at the same time gaging in applied research. No ndertaking, whether it be in industry agriculture, would be able to attain und development unless it were sed upon physics and chemistry. he object of the Institute is to perform portant mission made necessary by is.

3. Industrial Experiments

When any piece of physico-chemical plied research is completed in the oratory, tests are made for industrial plicability, and in case they show od results, arrangements for manu-cture are carried out at the Institute d work is commenced ; or the manu-cturing is entrusted to others ; or *a w company may be established on the sis of a remunerative contract with the stitute*, depending upon the nature the work. At present, there are veral undertakings that have already come paying industries and others on e point of success.

4. Manufacture of Instruments

Delicate instruments to be used in ysico-chemical research are of special nstruction and cannot be manu-ctured in ordinary factories. The stitute is equipped with instrument-anufacturing quarters on a com-ratively large scale, and besides anufacturing and repairing the instru-ents to be used in the Institute some ecial implements and instruments for vestigative purposes are manufactur-on orders from outside. Those at esent manufactured in the Institute e not yet very many, but delicate struments of several sorts, surveying struments and the like, previously im-rted from abroad, are not only being anufactured but some are even perior to foreign products.

5. Laboratories

The laboratories are known by the mes of the Chief Investigators, who e all noted experts in their domains

President
Viscount Masatoshi
Okochi

Vice-Patron
Viscount Eiichi
Shibusawa

of investigation. At present there are 22 Laboratories. Each has its own budget, and the defrayment of the expenses is left to the Chief Investigator. Each Chief Investigator has a free hand in the ratio of the disbursal of funds between laboratory equipment and salaries in his own laboratory.

6. Problems under Investigation

The lines of research pursued are increasing year after year and several of them are becoming the basis of Industrial development.

The Chief Investigators are perfectly free in their choice of research problems, no limitation being put on the sphere of their investigations. For example, a chemist may engage in research in physics, or vice versa. For the results of the work, however, the investigators are absolutely responsible.

7. Results of Investigation

The results of investigations are reported chiefly in the publication of the Institute both in Japanese and in foreign languages. The former amounts to about 7,000 pages making up eight quarto volumes while the latter amounts to nearly 3,000 pages similarly made up. A partial idea of the extent of its work may be obtained from the number of home and foreign patents acquired by the Institute. They number over three hundred, of which about one-fifth are patented in most of the civilized countries.

8. Officials and Investigators

Chief Officials follow :–
H.I.H. Prince Fushimi, *Patron*.
Viscount E. Shibusawa, *Vice-Patron*.
Viscount M. Okochi, *President*.
Chief Investigators follow :–

Dr. Satoyasu Iimori. Dr. Kikunaye Ikeda. Dr. Fusao Ishikawa. PH. D. Yoshio Ishida. Dr. Ken Nishi. Dr. Masaharu Nishikawa. Dr. Kôtaro Honda. Dr. Masatoshi Okochi. Dr. Isaburo Wada. Dr. Masao Katayama. Dr. Toshio Takamine. Dr. Hantaro Nagaoka. Dr. Bennosuke Kubota. Dr. Rikô Majima. Masaichi Majima. Dr. Torahiko Terada. Dr. Genitsu Kita. Dr. Masamichi Kimura. Dr. Shoji Seto. M. Sc. (Lond.) Masao Kinoshita. Dr. Tsuneo Suzuki. Dr. Umetaro Suzuki.

The Physico-Chemical Industries, Ltd.

(RIKAGAKU KOGYO KABUSHIKI KAISHA)

In view of the nature of the work for which the Institute of Physical & Chemical Research has been established, as explained above, it is not its purpose to engage directly in industries. Consequently many useful inventions and new ideas worked out by the Institute have not been used. This makes it necessary for an organization to exist for the industrialization of the achievements made by the Institute.

With the above object in view, a company was established in November, 1927, under the name of "The Physico-Chemical Industries, Ltd.," or properly "Rikagaku Kogyo Kabushiki Kaisha," with well-known personages and first-class concerns as the chief shareholders, such as the Mitsui Company, the Mitsubishi Company, the Okura Company, the Sumitomo Company, etc., in addition to the Institute of Physical & Chemical Research.

The chief functions of this Company are as follows :—

(1) To act as Sole Distributors of all the articles produced by the Institute.
(2) To industrially develop and market inventions originated by the Institute.
(3) To act as the Authorized Brokers for the sale of, or grant of licence to work, patent right owned by the Institute.

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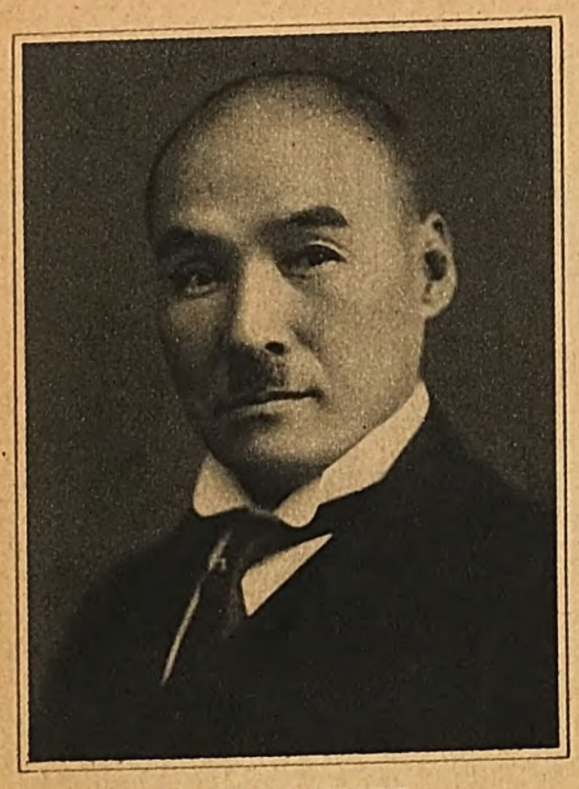

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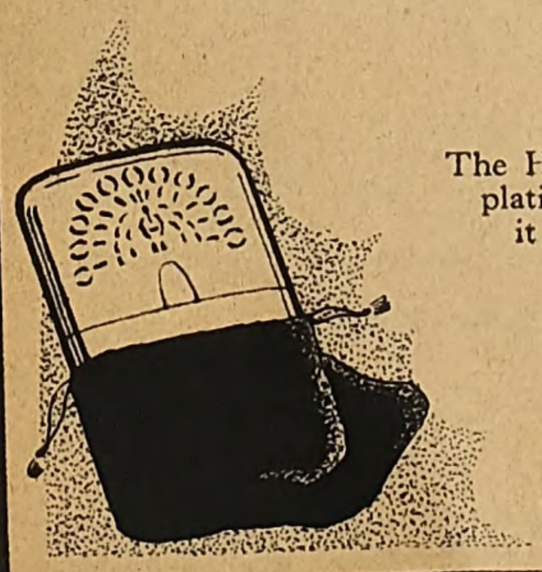

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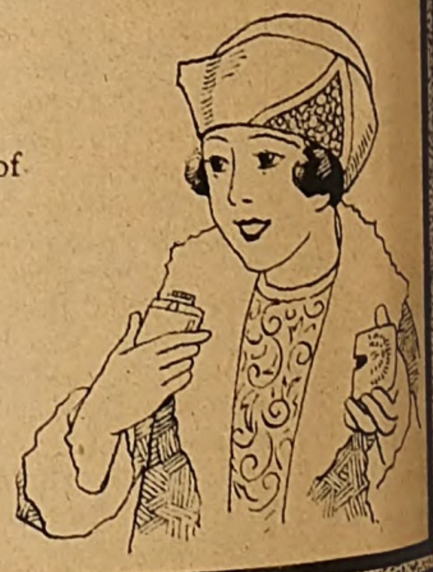

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THE WORLD ENGINEERING CONGRESS

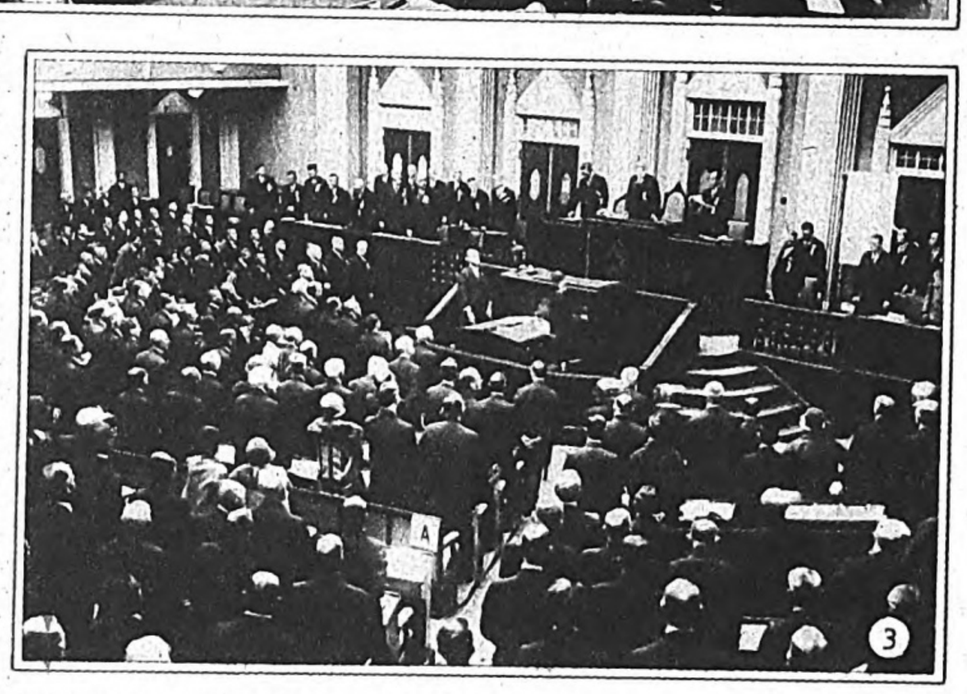
(THE FIRST INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS IN JAPAN)

THE congress had for its object the bringing together of scholars and ndustrialists of the world, the exhange of opinions among them and he publishing of their essays and rticles on engineering and science, hus promoting the progress of knowldge and civilization. Such confernces have often been held in Europe nd America, although on a smaller cale. But this was the first time an ngineering congress had ever been eld in the Orient and in scope and cale, it surpassed any congress of the ort ever held in any part of the world. t was first suggested by an American ngineer in March, 1925, and took isible shape this year. To mention few of the engineering congresses eretofore held, authorities on engieering assembled and held lecture eetings on the occasions of the Paris xposition in 1900, the St. Louis xposition in 1905, and the World xposition at San Francisco in 1915. ut none of these conferences came p to the congress in Tokyo in magniide. All the engineers who attended e Tokyo congress brought with em the results of their studies and vestigations for years past. The ct that such a big congress, interational in the true sense of the word, as first held in Japan is a matter for ngratulation and pride. Indeed it as long been a cherished idea that ch a congress should be held in pan, so that the present conditions industry and the culture of the untry should be witnessed by the dustrialists of the world. It has so been the desire of the industrialists foreign countries to observe the dustry of Japan, which has made most miraculous progress during short a time. Since the spring of 25, the following twelve associaons have been making preparations : e Japan Mining Society, the Japan on and Steel Association, the Engiering Society, the Fire Arms Asciation, the Shipbuilding Associaon, the Architectural Association, e Industrial Chemistry Society, the ygienic Industry Association, the ectrical Society, the Telegraph and elephone Association, the Machinery ssociation, and the Illumination ciety. The holding of a congress requires elaborate planning and entails a heavy expenses. It was thought that the co-operation of both civilians and the government would be necessary to bring the plan to success, and the promoters approached the government per help. As a result the government consented to contribute about 150,000 yen.

Prince Chichibu's Address at the opening ceremony of the World Engineering Congress

With the development of various kinds of industry, engineering occupies an important position in the national economy, for engineering and its progress greatly influence the development of industry.

In order to study and develop science and practical engineering, the open-minded cooperation of scholars and industrialists of the world is necessary. Various problems concerning industrial economics have a close bearing upon national and international problems, and economic conflicts among the power complicate international relations. It is therefore of the utmost importance that friendly cooperation should be maintained between the industrial countries, realising the principles of division of industry and international commerce. In this sense this congress will do much not only for the engineering and industry of the world, but for the general welfare of mankind. In conclusion wish to express my sincere thanks for the assistance rendered by all the countries concerned in the congress and for the trouble you, as representatives have taken to come here and make it a success.



In January 1928, committee members were appointed, and in July, Prince Chichibu consented to act as Honorable President of the Congress, the Premier as Honorable Chairman, and the Minister of Industry and Commerce and Viscount Shibusawa as Vice-Chairmen of the Congress. The estimate was put at 400,000 yen. The Congress was opened at the Imperial Diet Buildings on October 29, 1929, and lasted until November 7. It was divided into twelve departments as follow :

(1) General problems, (2) Mechanics and aeromechanics, (3) Architecture, (4) Engineering, (5) Railway Engineering and Transportation. (6) Communications, (7) Motor and electrical industry, (8) Mechanical Engineering, (9) Shipbuilding, Chemical Industry and Fuel, (11) Mining and Metallurgy, (12) Scientific Control.

Photos :

1. **Prince Chichibu addressing the Congress**
2. **Opening meeting of the World Engineering Congress**
3. **Closing meeting of the World Engineering Congress**

The party visited the factories of the following companies in Osaka :

The Fukusuke Tabi (Sock) Manufacturing Co.
The Railway Car Manufacturing Co.
The Nakayama Taiyo-do
The Japan Paint Co.
The Seihan Printing Co.
The Shimada Glass Manufactory
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The Toyo Cotton Spinning Co.

THE OSAKA FOREIGN TRADE ASSOCIATION

THE Association was established in 1914 by men engaged in foreign de who felt that co-operation was ry important during the World War hen they faced various vital problems nnected with the foreign trade of pan. Organization and Work of the aka Foreign Trade Association.

The Association has its business ice in the Osaka Chamber of Comerce building. Its members are men directly engaged in foreign de, and its object is the development foreign trade. The Association als with the following matters :

1. Study of foreign trade.
2. Negotiations with government ices, companies and other regarding reign trade.
3. Arbitration of disputes over exrt and import transactions.
4. Examination and certification of ods for export and import, and her matters necessary to the developent of foreign trade.

The officials and members of the sociation are as follows :

President : Katsujiro Iwai, Head the Iwai Company.

Vice-President : Jiro Sakabe, Head the Sakabe Company.

BY KATSUJIRO IWAI PRESIDENT

This Association has for its object the study and discussion of various problems connected with foreign trade. Its idea is the establishment of right and fair opinions. And naturally the subjects to be dealt with by the Association are confined to those of a serious nature. Some people, realizing the necessity of sending a great number of merchants abroad who would settle in foreign countries permanently have asked the government to take the necessary steps. This is a good example of the sort of subject considered by the Association. In short, the Association aims at the development of Japan's foreign trade.

Counsellor : Dr. Katsumoto Kedo.

Members: The Iwai Company, Ltd., Kitahama Shichome, Higashiku, Osaka; the Inabata Company, Ltd., Junkeimachi Nichome, Minamiku, Osaka ; the Harada Trading Company, Andojibashi Sanchome, Minamiku, Osaka ; the Hanta Company, Kawaguchimachi, Nishiku, Osaka ; the Osaka Branch of the Bank of Japan, Nakanoshima Itchome, Kitaku, Osaka ; the Osaka Branch of the N.Y.K., Kawaguchimachi, Nishiku, Osaka ; the Nichiwa Shokai, Minamidori Itchome, Yedobori, Nishiku, Osaka ; the Osaka Branch of the Tokyo Marine and Fire Insurance Company, Ltd., Koraibashi Shichome, Higashiku, Osaka ; the Osaka Branch of the Okura Trading Company, Ltd., Tsuriganemachi Nichome, Higashiku, Osaka ; the Osaka Marine and Fire Insurance Company, Hamadori Nichome, Dojima, Kitaku, Osaka ; the Osaka Shosen Kaisha, Ltd., Sozemachi, Kitaku, Osaka ; the Osaka Branch of the Yokohama Specie Bank, Kitahama Gochome, Higashiku, Osaka ; the Yoshizumi Company, Tosaboridori, Itchome, Nishiku, Osaka ; the Tanaka Yasu Company, Shinonomemachi, Sanchome, Higashiku, Osaka ; the Osaka Branch of the Bank of Taiwan, Kitahama Sanchome, Osaka ; the Nagase Company, Ltd., Itachiboridori Minami-Itchome, Nishiku, Osaka ; the Kongo Company, Minamidori, Yedobori Nichome, Nishiku, Osaka ; the Adaka Company, Ltd., Imabashi Gochome, Higashiku, Osaka, the Sakabe Company, Ltd., Naniwamachi, Kitaku, Osaka ; the Kishimoto Company, Ltd., Nakanoshima Rokuchome, Kitaku, Osaka ; the Osaka Branch of the Mitsui Bussan Kaisha, Ltd., Koraibashi Nichome, Osaka ; the Osaka Branch of the Mitsubishi Trading Company, Andojibashi Sanchome, Minamiku, Osaka ; the Osaka Branch of the Mitsubishi Warehousing Company, Ltd., Tamaecho, Kitaku, Osaka ; the Shibakawa Company, Ltd., Koraibashi Sanchome, Higashiku, Osaka ; the Shima Trading Company, Ltd., Koraibashi Shichome, Higashiku, Osaka ; the Main Office of the Sumitomo Bank, Kitahama Gochome, Higashiku, Osaka.

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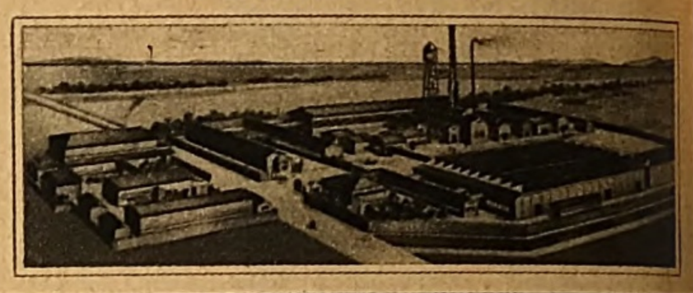

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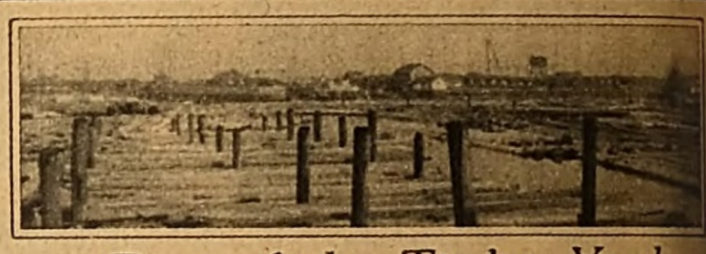

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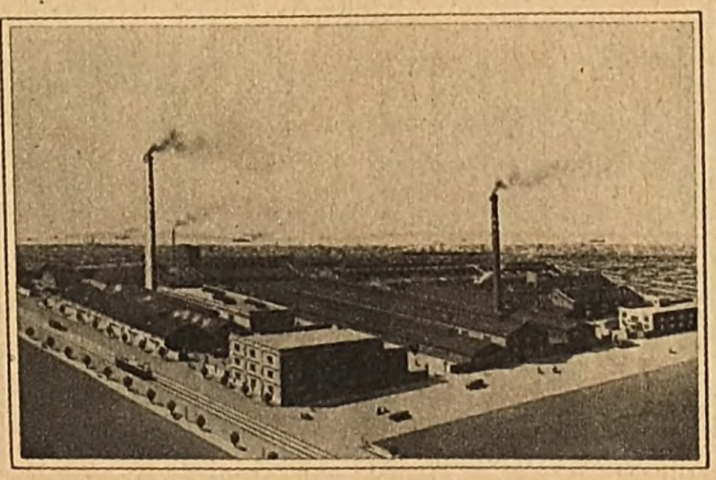

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President

of

The Dai Nippon Yubenkai Kodansha

and

His Nine Periodicals

JAPAN, where the waves of the Pacific constantly play tunes of beauty and peace on lovely shores nd where the world-famed Mount Fuji, ith its fan-like peak towers above the louds and the colorful cherry flowers loom in the Spring! The Island mpire of Japan has for years impressed e rest of the world with its Harakiri, uji-yama and cherry flowers as a dreamy nd, but before it was aware, this untry of mystic tales had developed nusual strength and remarkable vigor. New Japan! Her national stength, creasing in glory with each bitter perience and developing with the ars, will find boundless vigor in the ture. Her politics, her education, r religion, her business and all others hases of her life are pushing forward the double. Her newspapers, magines and books are in the limelight. The Dai Nippon Yubenkai Kodana has leaped into prominence, just Japan has strode forward with unmmon vim and push to become the cus of the world's attention. Within e short period of only two decades, is great publishing institution has fered to the reading public of Japan ne large magazines, and their circulaon has come to occupy more than 70 r cent. of that of the 800 periodicals ued in all Japan. The Kodansha s wrought a wonder in this. Mr. iji Noma, the president of the Dai ppon Yubenkai Kodansha, has thus en presented with the honorable me of "Magazine King of Japan" by e reading public at home and abroad. nce the biography of this Magazine ng was published in English last ar, Mr. Noma has much admiration roughout the world. His dramatic periences and ideal business manageent have arrested the keen attention Japanese and foreigners alike.

This publishing house is known for e issue of its nine magazines appealing young and old, men and women. nteresting and useful" describes all ese magazines, although the reading atter differs in kind in each of them. his is the unvarying policy under hich Mr. Noma publishes his journals. ake any of these nine magazines and ad any page you happen to turn to, d the interesting and useful stories hich are attracting readers thousands readers will surely impress you. mething instructive and of practical lue is found in all of them. The ins with which these materials are

collected for publication are extraordinary.

The true spirit of Bushido which aims at the sacrificing of one's life for the cause of one's country is implanted in President Noma and all men under him in the publication of these journals. They are described as "serving their country with magazines." All of them are working under the three fundamental principles, "unanimous endeavor," "sincerity and diligence" and "wise consideration." Its business policy is, so to speak, a religion. President Noma and all his men work with the constant desire to sacrifice themselves in the publication of magazines that serve the public. The regular office work covers eight hours, but some of the employees show up at 5 a.m. and others go home after 10 at night. Many of the heads do not mind leaving the office at midnight to catch the last cars, and some of them keep at work throughout the night. Employes of the Kodansha work double the ordinary shift of eight hours. For instance, there were 54 men each of whom worked between 15 and 18 hours a day last year, and the majority went on working for 13 and 14 hours. Men who have done something great have always worked hard in all countries at all times. Napoleon was such a man, and so is Edison.

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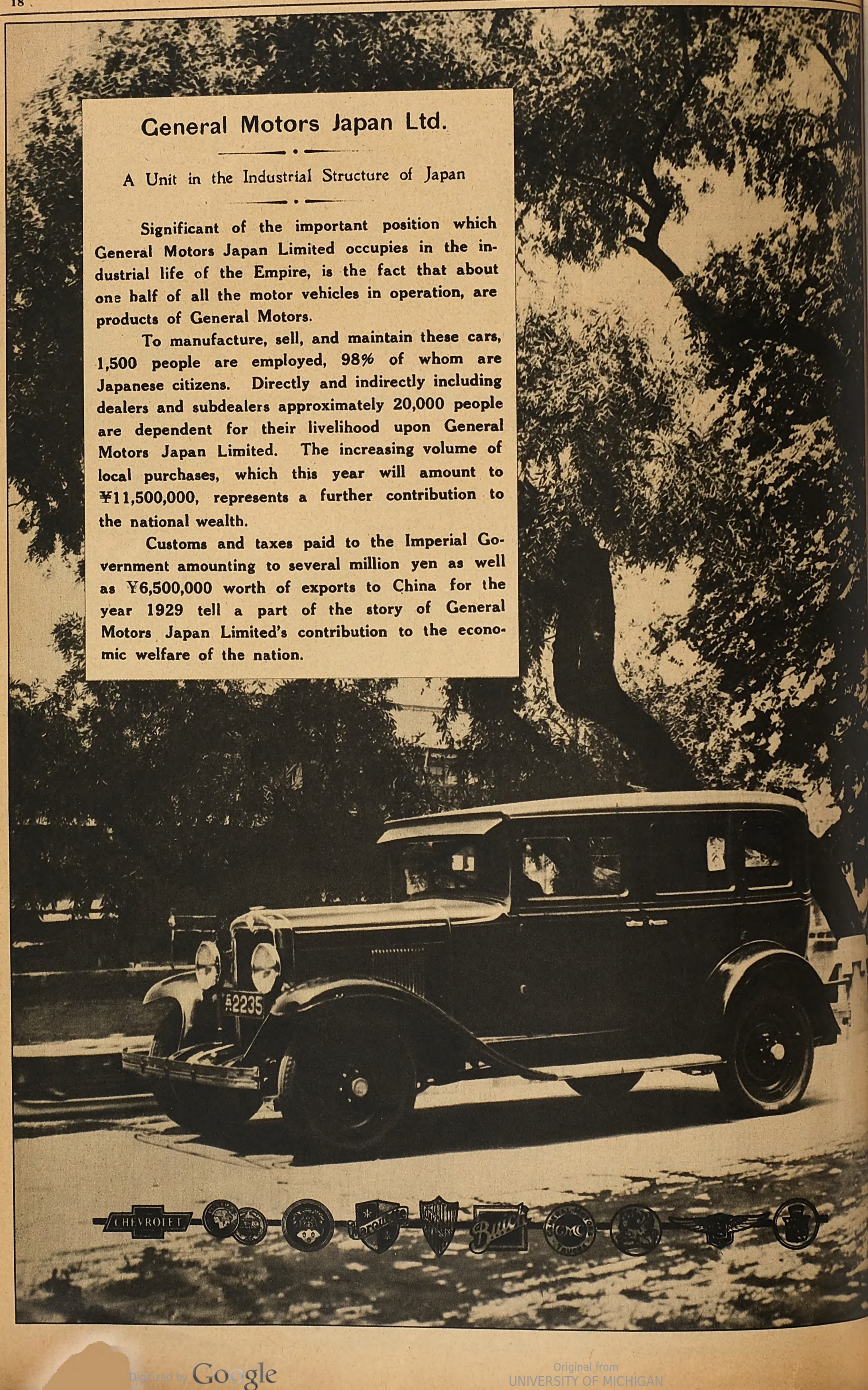

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PRESENT-DAY JAPAN

— OVERSEAS TRADE NUMBER —

SPECIAL ENGLISH SUPPLEMENT

OF

THE ASAHI

OSAKA AND TOKYO

OSAKA, JAPAN, DECEMBER 10, 1929

Commerce, a Guarantee of Peace

Japan's Destiny Linked up with the Development of Economic Internationalism

PRESENT-Day Japan, the annual English supplement of the Osaka and Tokyo Asahi, which first saw light in 1925, is gradually gaining an important position among publications treating of things Japanese as one of the most valuable guides to foreign students of the Japanese Empire.

Present-Day Japan for 1929 is now before the reader. It bears the subtitle, 'Overseas Trade Number.' This title is due to the fact that in the economic section of the supplement considerable space is devoted this year to present conditions in the overseas trade of Japan. And in this connection it may be said that the Osaka Asahi, which celebrated its jubilee last January, has sent a number of able correspondents into various parts of the world, including the Philippines, Singapore, Indo-China, Turkey, Persia, the Russian Maritime Province, and even such distant lands as South America, Africa and Australia, with the object of supplying to Japanese traders trustworthy data concerning the important markets of the world which may need Japanese goods in the future. The Asahi has undertaken this task in the conviction that in this way it can render valuable service not only to the Japanese people, but to other nations as well. Why?

The Asahi believes that trade among the nations is the best assurance of peace in the world. The old slogan 'Trade follows the flag' is already out-of-date and no longer applicable to the new conditions of the world. We venture to coin a new slogan, 'Peace follows trade.' Commerce is not in the least a peace-disturbing factor. It may be argued that commercial competition among nations may endanger their amicable relations. This has been inevitable during the transition period. Through the efforts of various international organs such as the Economic Conference Committee of the League of Nations, however, the true function of international commerce is gradually being shown, so that commerce is no longer a peace-disturbing factor after all. On the contrary it is the best guaranty for peace in the world, since well-adjusted commercial relations among the peoples of the world bring ever closer the ties binding these peoples. The kind of trade which may endanger the friendship of nations is trade based on prejudiced nationalism.

With the progress of society, no single nation can support itself on its own resources. Even the United States of America, with its vast resources, finds it difficult to entirely support herself. Then it is a matter of course that other countries less blessed with natural resources have to import necessary raw materials from other states fortunate enough to possess them. Future commerce must therefore be based upon economic internationalism and not upon economic nationalism.

Our striving then for the extension of markets abroad should not be taken for militant intrusion of Japanese traders on foreign states. We are not competitors with foreign industries, but are their co-operators according to the law of division of labour. Take the Chinese market for example. We are not the rivals there of the United States or of Great Britain. If there be any of our goods competing with their goods, it is only a temporary phenomenon inevitable in the first stage of commerce in a newly opened market. If the law of the division of labour is observed in accordance with the principle of economic internationalism, the traders of foreign countries in China will be in the course of time friendly co-operators instead of rivals. This applies to alike all backward states whose markets are still left unopened.

A nation has a right to live. Only when she is deprived of this divine right does she become imperialistic. A nation's subsistence is satisfied only through commerce based upon economic internationalism. The idea that a nation can secure subsistence through economic nationalism is an illusion.

Japan has annexed Formosa, Korea, and a part of Saghalien. But the annexation of these territories should not be construed as evidence of a covetousness for land on the part of the Japanese nation. The acquisition of these territories was rather the result of strategic considerations. If there were those who welcomed their acquisition in the hope that through them the solution of the vital problem of population had been postponed indefinitely, they were soon undeceived. They soon realised that Korea and Formosa were also densely populated, and their peoples had to be fed as well as those of Japan proper.

The possession of territories is not a true solution of the problem of population. We repeat that amicable trade relations based upon economic internationalism is the only conceivable solution of the problem. Japan, which suffers from an increase of population of nearly one million a year, and which has not sufficient natural resources to support this rapidly increasing population, finds no alternative but to resort to commerce, that is to say, to give something in return for food. This something can be nothing other than skill in industry. Such being the case, Japan's policy towards foreign trade stands upon pacifist motives, and you cannot find the least shade of economic imperialism even in her commercial relations with the backward countries.

Now disarmament conversations are in full swing, and they will soon take visible shape. All nations are consenting to the reduction of armaments, because by agreement they have sworn never to resort to them for the settlement of controversies. We are of opinion that if economic internationalism is ideally practised by all the commercial nations of the world, the greater part of all causes of dispute between nations will be swept away. If economic laws operate smoothly and no single nation finds cause for dissatisfaction in its supply of material requirements, the temptations to resort to arms will be greatly reduced.

Japan's ultimate aim in her foreign policy is the keeping of friendly trade relations with foreign countries. Japan is destined for generations to develop into a commercial and industrial nation, for, with great peasant states like Russia and China as her immediate neighbours, and with her meagre territory, possessing food resources too limited to feed her ever-growing population, she has no other means of subsistence.

Thus realizing that Japan's destiny is linked inextricably with her overseas trade based upon amicable trade relations with foreign countries, we give in the economic section of Present-Day Japan, in consonance with the Osaka Asahi's timely undertaking in commemoration of her jubilee, details of the conditions of Japan's overseas trade, hoping that by this means we are illucidating to the world, as well as to the Japanese people, Japan's right path in future and bringing to a right understanding those Japanese whose political opinions are in danger of going astray.

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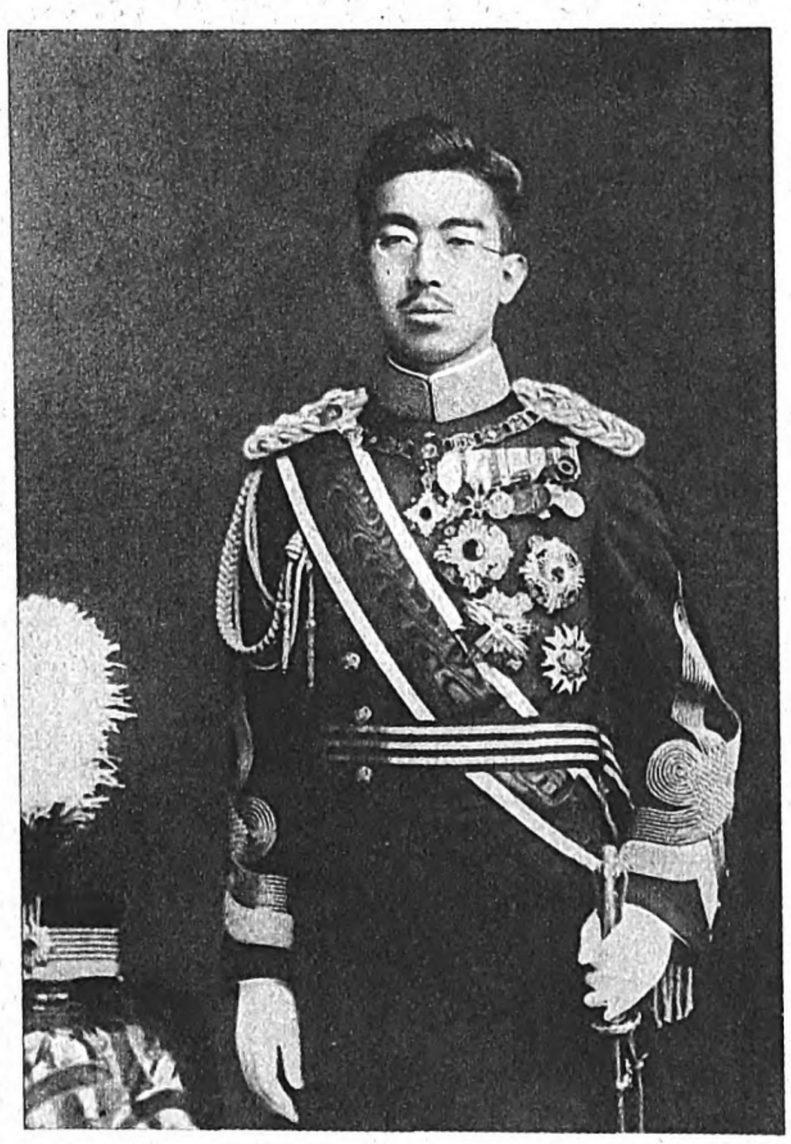
A Brief History of the Imperial Family

By Sanji Mikami, Lit. D.,
Director, Imperial Compilation Bureau

THE Japanese Empire is ruled and reigned over by an Emperor who inherits a Throne everlasting from ages eternal in an unbroken line of succession. The Japanese people can justly be proud of this unique character of their national constitution.

Again, since the establishment of the Empire, not once has it been invaded by a foreign nation. For that reason, too, our people possess considerable pride and self-confidence. Our people generally think that the Imperial Family is inseparable from the State, and accordingly the history of the Imperial Family is to a large extent the history of the Japanese race.

Amaterasu-Ōmikami, or the Great Sun-Goddess, was the founder of our Imperial Family. She dwelt in Takamagahara. To her grandson, Ninigi-no-Mikoto, she intrusted the "Three Imperial Insignia," a mirror, a sword, and a rosary of jewels, and sent him down to the western part of Japan. The great grandson of Ninigi-no-Mikoto, who was first called Kanyamato Iwarehiko-no-Mikoto, and later known as Jimmu Tenno (the first of the line of Emperors), succeeded in conquering the central part of the country and became the first Emperor. The era of this Empire dates from the time the Emperor Jimmu ascended the Throne, 2,589 years ago in 660 B. C. (N. B. As the earliest annals of our nation are not very accurate, this figure, 2,589 years, may not be scientifically exact and is said to be about 600 years too long). Our present Ruler, His Imperial Majesty the Emperor Hirohito, is the 124th Sovereign of this nation. The "Three Imperial Insignia" aforementioned have been transmitted from Ruler to Ruler as the symbols of the Throne throughout this long period.



Portrait of the Present Emperor

Here in this country the family system is deeply respected. Especially was this so in ancient times. Of course, there were peoples living in this country prior to the reign of the Emperor Jimmu. But as the years elapsed, the descendants of the various members of the Imperial Family flourished and multiplied and a number of them gradually surrendered their Imperial status and joined the throng of subjects. Such persons naturally constituted branch families of the Imperial Family. The majority of the other subjects, too, descended from persons who were close attendants of the Ruling Family in days past, so that they too were placed in a relation very similar to that of a branch family to the Main Family. In an island Empire such as ours, where intermingling and assimilation of apparently diverse and heterogeneous forces are easily attained, this family system has been able to develop to its fullest extent, politically and socially. The Imperial Family thus stands as the head family of the whole Japanese people.

Furthermore, our people in general respect their ancestors as deities and apotheosize them, as though they were still living among us. In a similar way, the main house of the people, the Imperial Family, regards the Great Ancestress, the Sun-Goddess, as the principal deity. The different successive Rulers beginning with the Emperor Jimmu are also respected and worshipped as deities. This act of homage to the Imperial ancestors has been the first principle and chief factor in the administration of any Emperor. In fact, the word "matsurigoto", now used to mean government or administration, was originally employed to mean the holding of a festival or service to the memory of the Imperial ancestors. In this way have our people come to be known as a reverent and ancestor-respecting and worshipping race; the festival and the administration became one. Even from these viewpoints can the Imperial Family be considered as the center of our people, possessing a solid and firm foundation.

It is only natural that in the course of a long period of history like that which we are now considering there should be stages of both prosperity and decline. Between the first Emperor, Jimmu Tenno and the 82nd, Gotoba Tenno, was the epoch of direct Imperial rule. Even this era was fairly long, and the mode of rule was not exactly the same throughout. There were times when some family which originally came from the Imperial line was all powerful; at other times the family from which the Ruler's consort came acted as guardian to some young Emperor; and still at other times some Emperor who had once abdicated continued to administer the affairs of the State. But on the whole this period could very well be called that of direct Imperial rule.

During this period there were such wise and courageous Rulers as the Emperors Sujin (10th), Keiko (12th), Ōjin (15th), Saimei (37th), and Kanmu (50th) who were directly instrumental in extending and expanding the territory over which they ruled. The Emperors Suinin (11th), Nintoku (16th), and Daigo (60th) were especially benevolent and merciful to their subjects. Again there were such other keen-sighted Rulers as the Emperors Suiko (33rd), Kōtoku (36th), Tenchi (38th), and Monmu (42nd), who introduced the culture of China, established various new institutions, and furthered the progress of the nation. Of these, Suiko Tenno was a woman, the first of her sex to ascend the Throne; there were eight other women Rulers, although all are called Tenno (Emperors).

Portrait of the Emperor Meiji

But in the reign of the 82nd Ruler, the Emperor Gotoba, 1185 A. D., a drastic change took place in the administration of the country. Minamoto-no-Yoritomo, the first of the military administrators came to power. For some time previous to that, the two rival houses of Minomoto and Taira—commonly called Genji and Heike—had been struggling with each other for supremacy. Both of these families originated from the Imperial line. Yoritomo of the Minamoto house succeeded in overthrowing the Tairas and came to control the military affairs of the nation. The Court appointed him Seii Tai-Shogun and entrusted him with the duty of providing for the defence and tranquillity of the Empire at large, a very heavy duty. He established his seat of government, or the Bakufu, in Kamakura. Thus began the military rule of Japan, which continued for about 700 years. The Emperor, however, continued to live in Kyoto, as did all the succeeding Emperors up to the time of the Meiji Restoration. From the time of the first Emperor up to that of the Emperor Kanmu (50th), the different Emperors resided in various places in the province of Yamato, including Nara. The Emperor Kanmu, in 794 A. D., removed the capital to Kyoto, which then became the nation's chief city for 1,000 years, continually, even during the years of military administration. Political power was thus snatched away from the Tenno. Financially, too, the Rulers were placed in serious difficulties, and such trying years continued for a long time.

In spite of the transference of the administrative power from the hands of the Emperor to the military leaders, and the consequent decline of the Court in prosperity, the traditional intimacy and the feelings between the Imperial Family and the people did not change. About 1550 A. D., during the reign of the Emperor Gonara (105th), the prosperity of the Court was at its lowest level. The Emperor lived in great financial straits, but still he was deeply concerned about the welfare of his subjects, in days of civil war, in days of famine, and in days of epidemics. He even took the whole blame upon himself, saying that the sufferings of his subjects were due to his own want of virtue. The records of those days furnish ample illustrations showing how sympathetically disposed he was toward his people.

The late Emperor, Taisho Tenno, most clearly expressed the relationship between the Imperial Family and the people when, at the time of his enthronement, he declared in his Rescript that "righteousness is the relationship between the Ruler and the ruled, as love is that between father and son." This is true, too, when we look at the matter from the side of the people.

To be sure, there were a few cases in which some of the subjects entertained disrespectful ideas toward the Ruling Family, in particular when the Buddhistic idea of equality was not yet clearly understood by our people and when revolutionary events in China stirred the imaginations of these rebellious spirits, but these were quickly overpowered and put aside

The Emperor Nintoku, the Benevolent, Viewing the Farm Houses From the Palace Building at Naniwazu (now Osaka), by Reizei Tamechika

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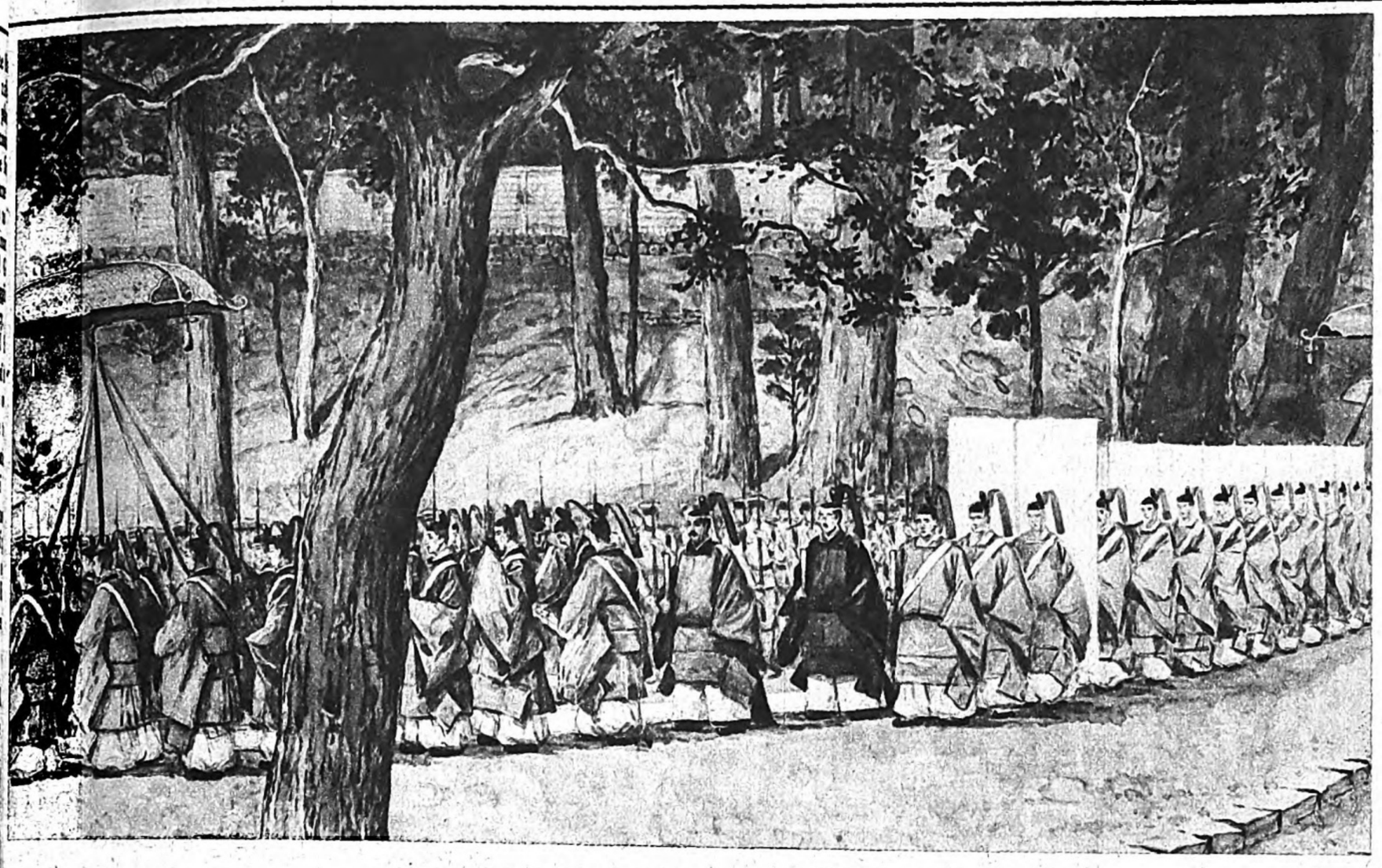


SHRINE REMOVAL CEREMONY AT ISE

The Ise Grand Shrine is dedicated to Amaterasu-Omikami, ancestor of the Japanese Imperial Household and of the Japanese nation. The shrine, which is situated at the foot of Mt. Kamiji in the Province of Ise, is a classical wooden building of peculiar architecture. Once every twenty years the shrine is rebuilt and the Spirit of the god is removed to the new shrine with the performance of solemn Shinto rites. It was in the year 3 B. C. that the Spirit of Amaterasu-Omikami was enshrined at this place. Five hundred years later, Toyoge-no-Okami, the god of food and clothing, was enshrined at the foot of Mt. Takakura in the same place, and since that time the shrine of Amaterasu-Omikami has been called the Inner Shrine, and the shrine of Toyoge, the Outer Shrine. Twelve hundred and forty years ago, during the reign of the Emperor Temmu (678-685 A.D.) the rebuilding of the two shrines in neighboring places once every twenty years was first carried out. And the fifty-eighth removal of the shrines took place this year.

The construction of the new shrines was undertaken by the new office for building the shrines, and the Master of the Sacred Rites is the President of the office which post is at present occupied by Prince Kuni, the Vice-President of the office being the chief of the Bureau for Shrines in the Department of Home Affairs. All expenditures are defrayed by the Treasury. The cost of the building of the new shrines this time amounted to ¥10,860,000, which was sanctioned by the Diet in 1921. At that time preparations for the building of the new shrines and the making of all necessary utensils and treasures for the gods were begun. All preparations being completed this fall, the removal ceremonies took place on Oct. 2 for the Inner Shrine, and on Oct. 5 for the Outer Shrine.

On the day of the removal ceremony of the Inner Shrine, H.I.M. the Emperor despatched Prince Kujo, Chief Ritualist as Imperial Envoy to the Grand Shrine of Ise. Mr. Hamaguchi, Prime Minister, all the Ministers of State, and specially chosen civil and military officers were present at the rites attired in such classical old-fashioned garments as were worn on the occasion of the Coronation of the Emperor last year.

The Palanquin containing the Spirit of the god was borne on the shoulders of ten Shinto priests. Before and after the Spirit went priests with new utensils and the god's treasures. The court musicians played classical music. The Imperial Envoy and Prince Kuni, Master of the Sacred Rites, were at the front and rear of the Palanquin. The mythical procession threaded its way through old pines and cedars. Meanwhile all lights were extinguished except the torchlights which illuminated the road for the procession. The solemn scene took the people back in imagination two thousand years. At 8 p.m. on the day of the ceremony the Emperor attended the ceremony of worshipping from the distance which was held in the Imperial Palace. His Majesty was attired in classical robes just as he was at the Coronation.

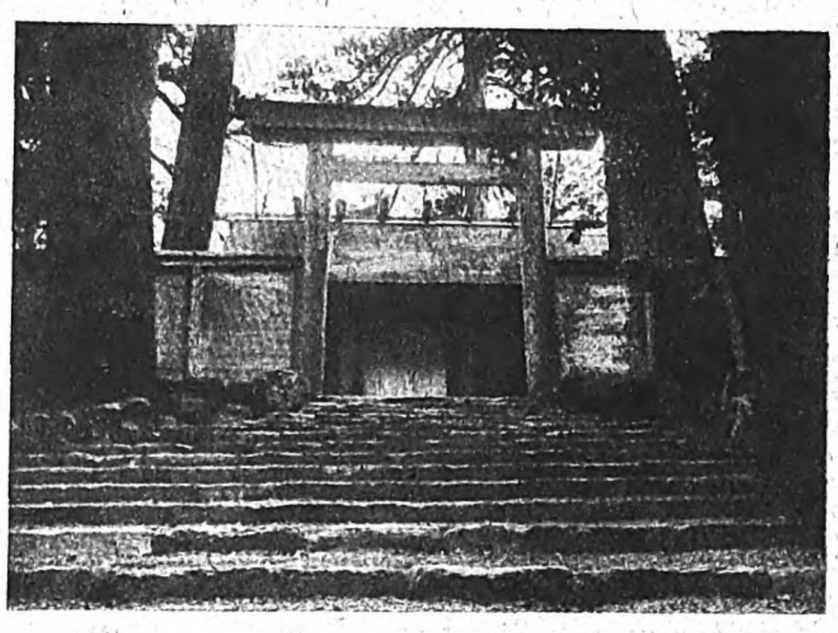
That day the nation celebrated by refraining from work. At schools the students sang a song especially written to celebrate the occasion. The Army sent troops of honour and the Navy despatched warships to Ise. The Department of Communications issued memorial postcards and stamps.

The picture representing the removal of the Inner Shrine was drawn by Mr. Ryo Tanaka.

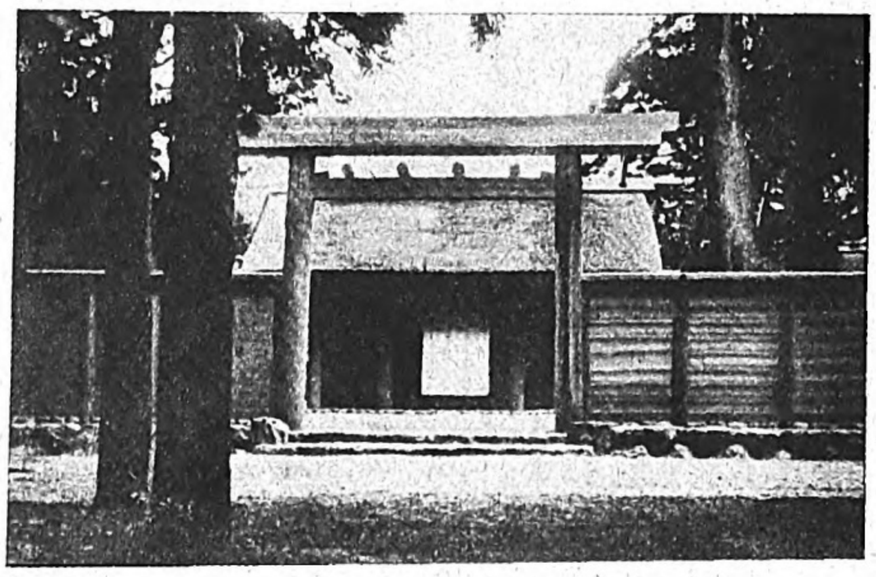
---

y the faithful subjects. The national onstitution was not in the least imired. The powerful Yoritomo, who tablished feudalism on a strong asis, did not forget to pay due revence to the Court. Even such a loyal soldier as Ashikaga Takauji led to place the reigning monarch love him. Toyotomi Hideyoshi, that ighty and shrewd military leader, ho rose from the lowest social stratum d succeeded in pacifying the nation, hich had been torn by civil strife for er a hundred years and who later en ventured to put continental gions under his control, did not rget the Imperial Family even in his yday. On the contrary, he actually d considerable work to show his high spect for the Ruling Family, and console and enhance the comfort the members of that Family. Ined, the tender relations between the nperial Family and the people are most religious in their nature.

During the Tokugawa Shogunate, hen interest in learning was revived d the study of history stimulated, a mber of men began to assert boldly at the nation should not be govned by military cliques as it was len, for that was not the true way of e Japanese nation properly ruled. hey deplored military administraon. Then messengers arrived from e United States requesting that the bors of the country be opened for ade. The steps taken by the Shounate aroused the feelings of the eople, especially the younger samurai, nd there arose a cry for the overthrow the Shogunate. The Shogun, Togawa Keiki, voluntarily restored the Emperor the reins of government which had been arbitrarily grasped and used by the militarists for some 700 years. This is the "Ōsei Fukko," or the Restoration of Imperial Administration, effected in 1867 A.D. It was the Great Emperor Meiji who was then on the Throne. He was only 16 years of age at that time, but being a ruler of remarkable capacity as well as of a studious nature, he, with the assistance of loyal and able statesmen, was able to rule very wisely. His reign flourished more and more as the years went by. Worthless customs of the past were put aside; the best elements in Western civilization were adopted; and thus our new civilization was born, with all its attendant institutions. Political and social reforms have been numerous in the histories of both the East and the West, both modern and ancient; but the case of Japan is probably unparalleled, when one considers the enormous task undertaken and the wonderful results accomplished during a comparatively short period of time, and in such a peaceful way.



The Rebuilt Inner Shrine at Ise



The Rebuilt Outer Shrine at Ise

Like a huge on-rushing tide, the civilization of the West washed our shores with tremendous force during the early Meiji days. Our country, which had possessed her own culture, was able to take the cultures of the West and digest them properly. Modern learning was initiated, new industries sprang up, trade with foreign countries developed, constitutional government was established, and the army and navy were reorganized. For a time our nation had to suffer from extraterritoriality and from unequal tariff schedules imposed upon us by the western powers. But these were gradually removed. Forced to defend herself, our nation waged wars with China and Russia, and in both came out victorious. After these events and developments, Japan, which until about 30 years ago, was given little recognition, came to be regarded as one of the Powers of the world.

The Emperor Meiji not only took direct interest in these vigorous and bold activities, but also in such a peaceful art as the writing of poetry. He was benevolent and enthusiastic about the promotion of learning. Other Emperors who were good poets were the Emperors Gotoba (82nd) and Gomizunoo (108th), but Meiji Tenno was the best among these. He composed nearly 100,000 "tanka," dealing with nature subjects as well as human relations, morality, and the sentiments between the Ruler and the ruled. It is not to be wondered at that millions of people both in this country and abroad pay such high tribute and reverence to him.

In the 45th year of Meiji, 1912, following a short illness, the great Emperor passed away. The grief of the nation was beyond description.

The Emperor Taisho, the late Ruler, succeeded to the Throne. He, too, was brilliant and merciful, but he suffered from poor health, and as a result, his reign was not very long. His death, which occurred in the 15th year of Taisho, 1926, was deeply mourned by all his loyal subjects. But it was during his reign that a number of events of world-wide importance took place. The World War broke out in 1914, and Japan, as an ally of Great Britain, joined in on the side of the Allies. In a brief space of time, the Japanese troops were able to capture Tsingtao, a strong German base, and drive all the German warships from the waters of the Far East. Our fleet further patrolled the waters of the Indian Ocean, the Pacific, and even the Mediterranean Sea. These activites, which were performed under the administration of the late Emperor, enormously raised the position of our Empire in the estimation of other countries.

The present Emperor had already, as Prince Regent, concerned himself with affairs of State during his Imperial father's reign. Upon coming to the Throne, he named the new era "Showa," or enlightened peace. In autumn, 1928, the enthronement ceremonies, solemn and stately, were duly performed in Kyoto. His Imperial Majesty inherits the excellent qualities of his immediate ancestors, his late father and grandfather, and is of keen intellect, interested in learning, and sympathetic toward his subjects.

While Crown Prince, he toured through Europe and broadened his knowledge and views of world affairs. This was the first time since the founding of our Empire that an Imperial Prince, who was soon to become the the nation's Ruler, had gone abroad on such an extensive tour. Utilizing whatever spare hours he can find, His Majesty continues to gain additional knowledge of the world and of life. He is particularly interested in the study of biology and has a deep knowledge of plant and animal life. The Japanese people are proud to have as their Emperor such young and enlightened sovereign, the grandson of the illustrious Emperor Meiji.

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Old Tales from Japanese Mythology

The Land of Life and The Land of Death

Izanagi-no-Mikoto and
Izanami-no-Mikoto

IT is impossible to distinguish the sexes of the first deities which appear in Japanese mythology. A sexless deity begets another sexless deity and this continues for three or four generations. Then a god and a goddess appear. Such pairs continue again for three or four generations. The last of such pairs was Izanagi-no-Mikoto, a god, and Izanami-no-Mikoto, a goddess, who descended upon this earth and begot common people, the natives of this land.

At that time our land floated upon the water like a jellyfish, and there were no solid islands. It was like the inside of an egg.

Nobody knows exactly when, but some time way back in the dim past Izanagi-no-Mikoto and Izanami-no-Mikoto decided to establish their country upon this jellyfish-like land. They stood upon a rainbow bridge spanning the blue skies and dipped a long spear into this soft substance. They stirred it up and then lifted the spear. From the end of the spear dripped drops of watery substance, which fell upon the water's surface and formed an island. This was named Onokoro-shima. Upon this island the two deities came down and created human beings.

With a single "tree of life" as center, began the reproduction of living beings blessed by the divine. Various beings to rule the different islands, the heavens and the earth, were born. Izanami-no-Mikoto gave birth finally to the god of fire and burned herself, and died.

Izanagi-no-Mikoto pursued his lost partner to the land of death and shouted.

"My beloved wife, the country which you and I created is not yet perfected. Come back with me."

To which Izanami-no-Mikoto replied.

"Why did you not come for me earlier? I have already tasted the food of the land of death and have been defiled. I cannot return to the land of life. But I shall explain to the god of this land what you have just told me, and shall try to go back to earth once more. You must, however, not see me as I enter this house."

She slipped into the house as she uttered these words. She failed to come out for a long time. Izanagi-no-Mikoto grew impatient, and, disregarding the warning of his wife, broke one of the teeth of the comb which he had in his hair, lit it to use as a torch, and entered the dark chamber. He could see worms creeping over his wife's body, as well as the eight deities of thunder seated here and there on the body, throwing out phosphorescent light. He was frightened and ran away. Izanami-no-Mikoto was enraged at her husband's act; she sent a goddess named Yomotsu-Shikome, a fierce old hag of the land of death, to chase after her husband.

The old hag ran very fast. Izanagi-no-Mikoto was nearly caught. Then he threw a thread-like piece of decoration from his hair to the ground, which grew into a grape vine, bearing fruit. The old hag was gladdened and ate the grapes.

In the meantime he ran on, but was again nearly captured. This time he broke his comb into pieces and scattered them on the ground. They turned into bamboo shoots, which the pursuer devoured. He dashed off again, only to be pursued this time by a band of soldiers from the land of death. Izanagi-no-Mikoto drew out his sword, and waving it behind him, reached a hill called the Yomotsu-hisaraka, which divides the land of life from the land of death. Here he fought desperately with three peaches, which he used as amulets, and at last succeeded in driving back the soldiers.

Izanami-no-Mikoto now ran after her husband herself. Izanagi-no-Mikoto placed a large rock at the middle of the hill, made the boundary line between life and death distinct, and announced that he would sever all relations with his wife. To this Izanami-no-Mikoto answered in the following vein:

"I will choke to death a thousand human beings every day."

"If you kill a thousand human beings, I will create a thousand and five hundred every day," he retorted.

Thus it is that there are more people born than die. Izanami-no-Mikoto at last became the god of the land of death.

Izanagi-no-Mikoto, having gone to the land of death, was defiled. In order to purify himself, he washed himself at a certain stream in the province of Hyuga.

Here he created a number of children. As he washed his left eye, he created Amaterasu-Omikani; as he

Izanagi-no-Mikoto and Izanami-no-Mikoto, Creating an Island on the Surface of the Sea with a Spear

washed his right eye, Tsukiyomi-no-Mikoto was born; and as he washed his nose, Susanoo-no-Mikoto was born. He was especially delighted when his third child came into being.

To Amaterasu-Omikami he gave a beautiful necklace, and he made her the sun goddess, Tsukiyomi-no-Mikoto the moon goddess, and Susanno-no-Mikoto the god of the ocean. Somehow Susanoo-no-Mikoto fretted, cried aloud, and used up all the ocean's water as tears. Father Izanagi-no-Mikoto scolded him and asked why he acted so.

"I want to go to the land where my mother stays," was the reply.

And so the father, now greatly angered, sent his child down to the land of death.

The Festival of Worshipping the Sun

Amaterasu-Omikami and
Susanoo-no-Mikoto

Amaterasu-Omikami is the sun goddess. She possesses light and glory and is called by the highest honorific term, which she alone enjoys—Omikami. Susanoo-no-Mikoto is daring and bold like the waves of the ocean; by the other deities he is often symbolized as a storm. He has certain qualities common to human creatures, and it was he who was responsible for most of the troubles and stormy incidents found in our mythology.

The hour for his departure for the land of death having drawn near, Susanoo-no-Mikoto called on Amaterasu-Omikami to bid her farewell. As he climbed to the latter's heavenly palace, he crossed rivers and mountains, shook the land, and created considerable disturbance. Amaterasu-Omikami saw that something was coming, armed herself, and waited.

"Why do you come here?" she asked of her brother when the latter approached her.

"I have come to bid you good-bye as I am going to my mother's land. I have not come with any malicious intent," he answered.

"Then show that you are pure."

"All right. Let us prove to each other that we are pure by creating gods, male and female, from what we possess."

The promise was made with the firm belief on the part of each that whatever they pledged to do would be realized—an expression of the state of their hearts. And thus the contract was sealed.

The Omikami broke the Mikoto's sword into three pieces, cleansed them with pure water from a well, and crushed them into tiny fragments easily with her teeth. She took the fragments and breathed them out of her mouth like mists, from which were born three goddesses.

Then the Mikoto took the necklace from the Omikami, tore off the beads and washed them with the water from the well. He crushed them with his teeth and blew them out of his mouth like misty spray, from which were born five gods. This proved that Susanoo-no-Mikoto did not have any bad motives.

"I have won," he shouted, and began to create a disturbance.

He damaged the farms and scattered foul substances all over the dining hall. But Amaterasu-Omikami did not get angry. She only said that her brother had "tilled the farms anew" and that he had "vomitted something because he was drunk." Susanoo-no-Mikoto became more furious; he dropped the carcass of a dead horse into the room where she and her assistants were spinning from the housetop. One of the women was so frightened that she committed suicide.

This was more than the Omikami could stand, and she shut the great door called Amano-iwayado behind her and hid herself from this world. The heavens and the earth suddenly grew dark, and crimes appeared in large numbers like millions of flies.

All the other deities gathered together to discuss how best they could draw Amaterasu-Omikami out of the room behind the closed door, so as to let her shed light once more upon the world, now utterly dark. Each was given some part to take in the great festival which followed this conference.

A large mirror, beads, and white and blue pieces of cloth were hung upon a "sakaki" tree. A mighty god of strength hid behind the great door, while the others stood in a circle in front of the door. All was ready for the festival.

A cock was made to crow noisily. One of the deities recited some prayers (norito), while a goddess, half naked, sprang upon a barrel in the center of the circle. All clapped their hands and sang in unison:

"Aha-ha-ha,
"Ah, it is merry,
"Ah, it is delightful,
"Ah-ha-ha."

The goddess on the barrel began to dance, stamping her feet heavily and rythmically. The chorus of the deities grew louder and louder.

Amaterasu-Omikami became curious about the noise outside. She opened the door just a little to see what was going on. The god of strength immediately thrust his hands inside and widened the opening. Then a ray of light flooded the dark space. It was morning, and night had disappeared. Amaterasu-Omikami once more reigned over this earth.

What should be done to Susanoo-no-Mikoto, the mischief-maker? The gods conferred again and decided to administer a punishment called "chi-kura-no-okido," consisting of extracting the hair and the nails of the fingers and toes. He was then expelled from the heavens.

(NOTE) The festival held by the deities to draw out the sun goddess hiding behind the great door is usually described in greater detail. This ceremony is still preserved today as a typical one of the kind. At the time of the "shrine removing ceremonies" of the Grand Shrines at Ise, observed in the autumn of 1929, one of the officiating priests imitated the crowing of a cock. In the autumn of 1928, at the time of the Imperial enthronement ceremonies of the present Emperor, a court lady stood upon a barrel and tapped it with a stick to produce some rythmic sounds. The decorations on the "sakaki" tree are used at every Shinto ceremony today, while the recitation of "norito" forms an essential part of such rites.

The Dragon With Eight Heads and Eight Tails

The Marriage of Susanoo-no-Mikoto

Driven from the heavens, Susanoo-no-Mikoto descended upon a place called Torikami, situated on the upper waters of the Hinokawa, in the province of Izumo. He saw floating on the stream a kitchen utensil, probably a bowl, and knew that there must be some one living further up the stream. He followed the tiny flow to its source, where he saw an old man and his aged wife weeping sadly, with their pretty daughter sitting between them. He wondered what it all meant and enquired. The old man's name was Ashinazuchi, the woman Tenazuchi, and the daughter Kushinada-Hime.

This aged couple had eight daughters, but every year a huge dragon with eight heads and eight tails came out and took away one of their daughters. The last one, now sitting between them, was to be devoured by the dragon within a few days.

"Won't you give me your daughter?" the Mikoto requested.

"But we do not even know your name...." the father said, hesitating.

"Well, I am the younger brother of Amaterasu-Omikami. I will kill the dragon for you if you will give me your daughter."

"Then, gladly will we give you the girl."

This done, the Mikoto ordered the aged couple to prepare for the slaughtering of the dragon. He had them fill eight large barrels with wine and placed them all in a row.

The dragon with the eight heads and eight tails finally came. Before he made any move to snatch away the fair

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aiden, he drank the fragrant wine. He became drunk and fell asleep. usanoo-no-Mikoto cut the dragon into ieces with his sword and the blood ushing forth from the beast reddened he waters of the Hinokawa.

When the Mikoto tried to cut off one f the tails, his sword struck something ard and the edge of his weapon broke. e thrust his sword into the flesh and iscovered a large shining sword. his he later offered as a tribute to his der sister, Amaterasu-Omikami, and is the sword which now forms one of the three sacred treasures" of this ation.

Susanoo-no-Mikoto built his home Izumo province, and lived with his ife, Kushinada-Hime, in the Suga-o-miya palace. He composed a poem inning something like this :

"The clouds pile upon one another,
enveloping
"My palace all around ;
"Just to make my wife live comfort-
ably,
"They surround us like hedges.
"Oh, what beautiful clouds !"

The Story of Okuninushi-no-Mikoto

Yakami-Hime and Suseri-Hime

Among the descendants of Susanoo-o-Mikoto was one called Okuninushi-o-Mikoto. He had a number of rothers, one of whom was to wed akami-Hime. He and his brothers ft for the province of Inaba for the edding. Though the groom was his wn brother, Okuninushi-no-Mikoto llowed him like a servant, carrying hatever packages the bridegroom had take with him.

Okuninushi-no-Mikoto was walking long the beach, a little behind the thers. There he saw a rabbit, with s hair all gone, weeping sadly. He sked what the matter was, and learned he following pitiable tale from the poor east :

This animal lived on an island off the ast in the Sea of Japan. He wished reach the mainland, but could not wim. So he deceived a shark, after nceiving of a little plot.

"Let us see which of our groups, urs or mine, is larger in number," he roposed to the shark.

"Good !" said one of the sharks, and mmediately he called his companions. hey lined up in a long row, from the land to the mainland.

"Are you ready ? I am going to ount you," the rabbit cried as he aped from one to another, and in no me he had arrived at the mainland. he sharks saw that they had been ceived and took him and skinned im clean.

Okuninushi-no-Mikoto's brother and is party had passed by. They had vised the animal to take a plunge into e sea and sit in the wind, if he wanted heal his wounds. He had done as was told, but the pain only increased e more.

Upon hearing this story, Okuninu-i-no-Mikoto took pity on the beast d kindly suggested this remedy :

"I see you have been fooled. Take dip in the stream and dry yourself ing on the cat's-tails, which you find reabouts. You will surely be heal-."

The rabbit followed Okuninushi-o-Mikoto's advice and soon got well. e thanked the Mikoto heartily, and rophesied :

"Of the many brothers, you alone e worthy of marrying Yakami-Hime. am sure it will come about that you o."

As predicted, Yakami-Hime in a clear oice declared her choice : "Please all ep quiet. I am going to wed Oku-inushi-no-Mikoto and nobody else."

The other brothers became jealous of im and started to annoy the bride-room. They took him to a high moun-in called the Tema-no-yama, in the rovince of Hoki, and said :

"There are red wild boars in this ountain. We shall chase them from e top, and we want you to catch em all alone. If you fail to capture em, you are not qualified to become a bridegroom."

They climbed to the mountain top, and rolled down a lot of stones resembling boars, which they heated to make them look red. The Mikoto tried to catch these stones and burned himself. He was severely injured and died. His mother deeply mourned over his death, and by asking the god of life succeeded in resuscitating him.

Persecutions continued. Next his brothers placed him in a crack in a tree and crushed him to death. His mother again brought him to life. She and his father sent him to the country of Susanoo-no-Mikoto.

The daughter of Susanoo-no-Mikoto, Suseri-Hime, fell in love with Okuninushi-no-Mikoto as soon as the latter arrived at her home. She rushed to her father's side and whispered that a handsome god had arrived. The father simply said :

"What, Okuninushi-no-Mikoto ? Well, he is Japan's courageous god."

That night the newcomer was to sleep in the "dragon's room." The daughter of the house handed him a piece of cloth, saying, "When the dragon comes, wave this piece of cloth

Hoori-no-Mikoto and Toyotama-Hime, About to Separate

three times."

As midnight approached, the dragon came and danger threatened Okuninushi-no-Mikoto. He waved the little piece of cloth thrice, and the beast became tame, allowing him to sleep peacefully.

On the following night, he was placed in the "centipede's room." But again he was saved from danger through the aid of the little piece of cloth given him by Suseri-Hime.

He was next told to go and get an arrow which Susanoo-no-Mikoto shot into a field. When Okuninushi-no-Mikoto was in the middle of the field looking for the lost arrow, his host set fire to the grass around him. But a little mouse showed him a hole in the ground where he could take refuge. And in the meantime, the mouse found the arrow for him.

Susanoo-no-Mikoto thought that his guest had been burned to death. He was surprised, however, to find him safe without the slightest injury, and with the arrow, too. He accompanied him back to the house. He asked his young guest to wash his head and comb his hair carefully for him. As this was being done, Susanoo-no-Mikoto fell asleep.

Okuninushi lost no time. He parted the old man's hair into several knots and tied each of them to the ceiling. He placed a huge rock against the door of the house. Then he took all his treasures, spears and swords, and a harp belonging to Suseri-Hime. With these and the maiden, he started to run away from the place.

But the harp string touched a tree and Susanoo-no-Mikoto awoke at the sound. He tried to follow after the couple, but he lost considerable time in untying his hair and pushing aside the rock before the door. The couple escaped safely.

Okuninushi-no-Mikoto finally married Suseri-Hime. This fulfilled the wish of his ancestor, Susanoo-no-Mikoto. Yakami-Hime, his first consort, bore a child and returned to her parents.

The Blessings of the Sea and the Blessings of the Mountains

The Beautiful Land at the Bottom of the Sea

The descendants of Susanoo-no-Mikoto were called "kunitsu-gami," or the deities on earth, while those of Amaterasu-Omikami were known as "amatsu-kami" or the deities of heaven. These two sets of deities seemed to have had quite a deal of controversy between them over the rule of the land up to the time of the Emperor Jimmu, the first Ruler of this Empire. Eventually, however, it was the descendant of Amaterasu-Omikami, Jimmu Tenno, who acceded to the Throne and it was her descendants who prepared the land for the enthronement of the Emperor Jimmu.

"This country, Japan, where the crops will flourish, is the land where my descendants shall rule long. Go, my grandson, to this land, and rule. The prosperity of the Court, the people, and the country shall continue as long as the heavens and earth last."

With these words, Amaterasu-Omikami sent her grandson, Ninigi-no-Mikoto, to Japan, with the three sacred treasures.

The three sacred treasures were the mirror and the beads which were hung up when the grand festival was held before the Amano-iwayado, and the sword which Susanoo-no-Mikoto offered to his sister, the sword taken out of the terrible dragon. Accompanied by a large number of deities, he descended to Takachiho-no-mine, a peak in Kyushu.

Ninigi-no-Mikoto took for his wife the beautiful Konohanasakuya-Hime, known as the "essence of the cherry blossem" or the goddess of Mt. Fuji. Between them they had three children ; the eldest son was called Hoderi-no-Mikoto and the youngest Hoori-no-Mikoto.

Hoderi-no-Mikoto was the god of the fishes in the sea, while Hoori-no-Mikoto was the god who ruled over the beasts in the fields and mountains. One day, the younger brother pleaded with his elder brother to exchange with him the products of the sea and the land. The elder brother consented and let the younger one have a fishing rod. Hoori-no-Mikoto went to the sea with the rod, but after spending the whole day, he had not succeed in catching any fish. He dropped the fishing hook to the ocean bottom.

The two brothers once more returned to their own respective spheres of control. Hoori-no-Mikoto apologized for having lost the hook, and made a number of similar hooks out of his sword. But the elder brother was stubborn and refused to accept anything but the original one.

Not knowing what to do, Hoori-no-Mikoto went to the sea beach once more and cried there. Another god named Shiozuchi-no-Kami (the god of voyages) passed by, and after listening to the story of the crying brother, offered his services.

He made a boat with bamboo, and gave Hoori-no-Mikoto the following bit of advice :

"Get into this boat. I shall push the boat for you out into the sea. Remain still until you come to a current, which will take you to the palace of the god of the sea. Beside the gate of that palace you will find a well, over which hangs a branch of a large 'katsura' tree. Climb into this tree and wait until the daughter of the god comes out. She will teach you something very valuable."

He did as he was told by the god of voyages and waited for the appearance of the maiden, sitting up on the branch of the "katsura" tree. A servant of Toyotama-Hime, the daughter of the god of the sea, came out first, to fetch some water from the well. She was taken aback by the reflection of his figure in the water. The Mikoto came down from the tree and addressed the woman familiarly, asking for a drink of water.

The servant offered him some water in a pretty cup. He did not, however, drink the liquid, but instead took one of the beads of his necklace and, put it into his mouth with some water, spat it out into the cup. The bead stuck fast to the edge of the cup. This the servant took to her mistress, Toyotama-Hime.

"Is there not some one outside the gate ?" Toyotama-Hime enquired when she saw the cup.

"Yes, outside the gate, in a tree I saw a handsome youth. He made this bead stick fast to the cup," the servant explained. Toyotama-Hime came to the gate to see the youth.

The two became deeply attached to each other. The girl's father, the god of the sea, consented to their marriage and let them live in a beautiful palace. They spent three years thus happily in love with each other.

One day, Hoori-no-Mikoto recalled the sad incident of the lost fishing hook. He became melancholy. His wife wondered what the cause might be and asked. He explained everything to her as well as to her father, the god of the sea.

The god of the sea then assembled before him all the fishes and asked if they knew anything about the hook. One of the fishes told about the curious behavior of the "tai" (sea-bream). Upon opening its mouth, they discovered a hook which was stuck in its throat.

Handing the hook to Hoori-no-Mikoto, the god of the sea said :

"When you give this hook back to your brother, recite these words—obochi, susuji, majichi, uruji. Do not face him when you give it to him. If your brother Hoderi-no-Mikoto cultivates a dry farm, you must till a paddy-field. If he tills a paddy-field, you must start a farm. I control the water and I can damage his crops. If he tries to persecute you because of such damage, torment him with this 'bead of high tide.' Then take out this 'bead of low tide' and save him."

Thus handing him the two precious magic beads, together with the lost hook, the god of the sea sent Hoori-no-Mikoto back to land upon the back of the fastest and strongest shark in a day.

He returned the hook. Following the advice of the god of the sea, Hoori-no-Mikoto began tilling a dry field. As predicted, his elder brother suffered from bad crops, and began to torment his younger brother. He took out the two magic beads and retaliated. Hoderi-no-Mikoto was completely beaten, and pledged to be the life-long servant of his younger brother.

Toyotama-Hime came to the land alone in search of her beloved. She said : "It would be extremely disrespectful for me to give birth to a child, descended from the line of the heavenly deities, at the bottom of the sea."

And so a special chamber was prepared for the expectant mother, the roof being thatched with birds' feathers. She requested her husband not to peep into the chamber. But Hoori-no-Mikoto broke his promise and secretly looked into the room where the baby was to be born. And there he witnessed a huge shark creeping all over the room. Toyotama-Hime found this out, and after giving birth to a son, she returned to her home in the sea. She closed the passage which connected the earth and the ocean bottom.

The new-born babe was named Ugayafukiaezu-no-Mikoto. His mother longed to see her son as well as her husband. She sent as the child's nurse, her yougner sister, Tamayori-Hime, together with the following poem :

(Continued on Page 82)

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The Latest in Japanese Politics

A Peculiar Feature of Japanese Parliamentary Government

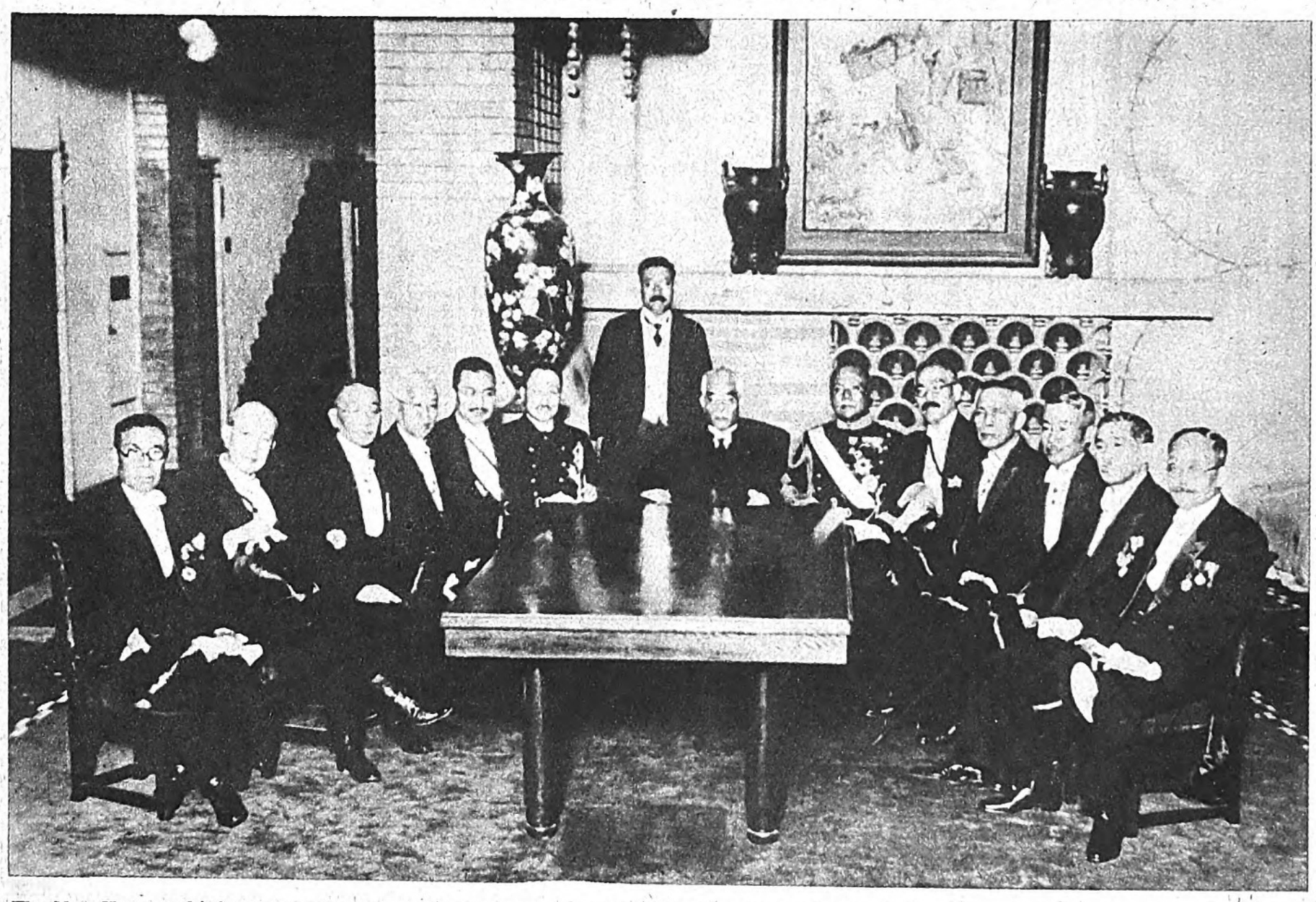
I. RESIGNATION OF THE TANAKA CABINET

ON the morning of July 2, 1929, Baron Tanaka, Seiyukai Prime Minister, was received in audience by His Majesty the Emperor in the Palace and tendered the resignation of all the members of the cabinet. In the statement published under the name of Baron Tanaka, the reason given for the resignation of the cabinet *en masse* was so vague that we are quite unable to grasp the real circumstances which led to the crisis. The statement runs as follows:

"For over two years have we held the ministerial portfolios, and we have still many political promises left unfulfilled, but longer retention of power might incur the displeasure and even the weariness of the nation towards the government. Considering the situation at home and abroad, we have thought it a wise step to cause a change in the current of opportunity, thus anticipating a renewal of the political situation. That is why we have tendered our resignation....."

It is, however, utterly against parliamentary procedure that a cabinet should resign in order to avoid circumstances which would lead up to the weariness of the nation, or to cause a change in the current of opportunity. The general public, therefore, finds the real cause for the cabinet resignation somewhere else, i.e. in the lines which are added to the statement: "It is truly regrettable for the state and for parliamentary government that a certain grave problem which occurred outside of Japan proper last year was made a weapon for party strife and a political issue. In connection with this problem we can not but think of our great responsibility as state ministers."

Thus the public understands that the Tanaka Cabinet's resignation was caused by the grave problem in Manchuria. We are not free to fully explain what the grave problem in Manchuria is, but ever since a certain occurrence there, the problem has haunted the Tanaka Cabinet like an evil spirit, and the cabinet ministers have taxed their brains trying to figure out how to get rid of it. The problem produced many rumours, and in the fifty-sixth session of the Diet it was taken up by the House of Representatives, and a number of interpellations were made by the opposition members, and even in the Upper House accusative interpellations were made. The government, however, declined to make any explanation of the incident on the pretext that the affair was being investigated, thus avoiding or postponing the acceptance of responsibility for the incident. How the government managed to keep on with such a grave issue unelucidated is beyond our comprehension. But the cabinet found it quite impossible to ignore public opinion by burying the problem in oblivion. It was pushed to the wall, and found no way out of the difficulty but resignation *en masse*, taking the full responsibility for the problem.



The New Hamaguchi Cabinet on the Day of Installation. From left to right sitting: Koizumi, Communication; Tawara, Commerce and Industry; Machida, Agriculture and Forestry; Kobashi, Education; Shidehara, Foreign Affairs; Takarabe, Navy; Hamaguchi, Premier; Ugaki, War; Egi, Railways; Adachi, Home Affairs; Matsuda, Overseas Affairs; Watanabe, Justice. Standing: Suzuki, Chief Secretary

II. FORMATION OF THE HAMAGUCHI CABINET

His Majesty the Emperor, upon receiving the resignation of the Tanaka Cabinet, summoned Prince Saionji, the only surviving Elder Statesman, and asked him to whom to entrust the formation of the succeeding cabinet. In doing this, the Emperor simply followed the political usage first adopted by the Emperor Meiji. Prince Saionji recommended Mr. Hamaguchi, President of the Minseito Party, the biggest opposition party. Thereupon His Majesty summoned Mr. Hamaguchi and ordered him to form a new cabinet. It was at 1 p. m., July 2nd, that Mr. Hamaguchi proceeded to the Palace and received the Imperial order, and at half past six on the same day the new Premier presented to the Emperor a list of the new cabinet members, the ceremony of installation of the new cabinet being held in the Phœnix Hall at nine o'clock that night. Count Makino, Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal, Admiral Suzuki, Grand Chamberlain, General Nara, Aid-de-Camp, and Mr. Ogawa, ex-Minister of Railways took part in the ceremony. The ministers of the new cabinet are as follows:

Prime Minister	Yuko Hamaguchi
Foreign Affairs	Baron K. Shidehara
Home Affairs	Kenzo Adachi
Finance	Junnosuke Inouye
Army	General I. Ugaki
Navy	Admiral H. Takarabe
Justice	Viscount C. Watanabe
Education	Ichita Kobashi
Agriculture and Forestry	Chuji Machida
Commerce and Industry	Magoichi Tawara
Communication	Matajiro Koizumi
Railway	Yoku Yegi
Colony	Genji Matsuda

Not long after the formation of the Hamaguchi Cabinet, a number of scandals were brought to light through relentless prosecution by the judicial authorities of the central figures in the Seiyukai Party. The succession of adversities seemed to have affected greatly the health of Baron Tanaka, President of the Party, and he suddenly died of heart failure on September 29, this year. Thus the party was confronted with the difficult task of selecting a successor, a wrong choice threatening to split the party. After much deliberation they finally selected Mr. Tsuyoshi Inukai and made him the new leader of the party.

III. INAUGURATION OF THE PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT

Thus it will be seen that, politically speaking, July 2nd, 1929, was a very busy and important day. That day the Tanaka Cabinet collapsed and the Hamaguchi Cabinet took its place. In the history of Japanese parliamentary government no such rapid change of cabinets had ever been carried out. The resignation of the Tanaka Cabinet, the summoning of Prince Saionji, the Imperial order to Mr. Hamaguchi to form a cabinet, the presentation of the list of cabinet members, and the installation ceremony, all came on the same day!

The fact that in recent years political changes have been carried out so simply, precisely and rapidly is said to show great progress in parliamentary administration in Japan. In 1924 the Super Party Kiyoura Cabinet resigned as a result of the general election; the Komei Kato Cabinet was formed in April, 1927; the Tanaka Cabinet was formed, following the resignation of the Wakatsuki Cabinet; and again in July this year the Hamaguchi Cabinet succeeded the Tanaka Cabinet. In all these cases the transfer of political power was made smoothly and without any hitch. The general public welcomed this tendency as indicating that in Japan at last the principle of party government has been established. That the nation rejoiced in this tendency as marking progress in the system of parliamentary government proves how the system in Japan is still in a state of infancy. In England it is considered a matter of course that the Opposition Party should organise a new cabinet, but in Japan even such a simple parliamentary practice had not been regularly observed. Even the formation of a party government is a late phenomenon. It was believed until very recently that a political party could not organise a cabinet independently and the formation of a bureaucratic or clan cabinet was the general rule. Such a so-called super-party cabinet maintained its existence by entering into an understanding with the political party having a majority in the Lower House. Such a cabinet was, therefore, not formed out of the biggest political party in the House, but only enjoyed existence through the support of the latter. With a few exceptions this political condition continued nearly thirty years after the creation of the Diet in 1890. The Kiyoura Cabinet, which was organised in 1924, was a notable example of a super-party cabinet.

Since such abnormal cabinets were allowed to exist, it was quite natural that every change of government should occasion a great political turmoil. Competition for power between clan-statesmen, struggles between bureaucratic politicians and party members, etc. were regular occurrences pending the formation of a new cabinet, and nobody could foretell what statesmen should form a cabinet. This was the result of the balance of power between the clan-statesmen and political parties. With the decline of power of the former through death, the centre of gravitation of political power was gradually shifted to political parties. In this way party government became the political faith of the nation, and the principle of cabinets being changed on party lines has been established for the first time. For having promoted this favourable tendency we must recognize the merit of Prince Saionji, the only surviving member of the Elder Statesmen, whose political sagacity saw the spirit of the age, and whose counsels to the Emperor were reasonable and coinsided with the common sense of the nation. The parliamentary principle thus firmly established would work automatically

The Premier as He Looks to a Cartoonist

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even after the death of all the Elder Statesmen. Then it may be said that one corner stone of the ideal parliamentary rule has been set which coinsides with the ideal of rule by the Emperor and the nation.

IV. THE TEN PLANKS OF THE PLATFORM OF THE NEW CABINET

The announcement of the platform of the new cabinet was eagerly expected in so much as it meant to rectify the misgovernment of the Tanaka Cabinet. In the cabinet council held on July 9th, the platform was finally decided upon, and the Premier was received in audience by the Emperor and obtained the Imperial sanction for it. The platform was then issued. It is briefly as follows :

1. Fair Politics. Fairness in politics is the fundamental condition for parliamentary rule. Unfair and dark politics produce many evils. Let politics be made the highest goal of the nation's thought and ideas, and many political evils will be cleansed. The government will make it a point to make politics fair and impartial, aiming at the enhancement of the fundamental principles of politics and the extension of the people's participation in them.

2. Revival of the National Spirit. It is to be truly regretted that with a change of social conditions there has arisen a tendency among the people toward fickleness and negation, and in thought and ideas a part of the people have quite lost their judgement. The government wants to focus its utmost attention on making the people cherish the idea of our form of government, which is unique in the world, thus aiming at the enhancement of the national spirit, which together with the firm establishment of its economic policy will serve to rectify the evils of the age from which the nation is suffering.

3. Severe Discipline. The government aims at severe discipline among government officials, and any laxness will be severely dealt with. This will serve to stimulate the moral power of the nation.

4. Improvement of Relations between Japan and China. Happy co-existence is the motto of the government in its policy toward China. As to the economic relations of the two countries, they must be ever improved freely and without obstacles. Not only do we abandon any aggressive policy in any locality of China, but we will go a step further and render friendly assistance toward the attainment of the national aspirations of the Chinese people. But at the same time we feel it our responsibility to preserve right and important interests, and all rights indispensable to the national existence of the Japanese nation.

5. Disarmament. The government believes that the great task of the world disarmament is not impossible should the powers face the task in a conciliatory spirit, considering their respective positions and national safety.

6. Readjustment of Finances and Curtailment of Expenditure. The government will set an example of economy by curtailing the national and local finances, in order that the readjustment of the general finances and the nation's economic betterment should be accelerated.

7. Gradual Reduction of Public Loans. The total amount of national loans is estimated at about ¥6,000,000,000, which is responsible for the shaking of the financial foundations of the country and the stability of financial circles, injuring the value of public bonds. The government holds that the total sum of public loans should not exceed the amount as it stands at the end of the fourth financial year of Showa (1929), and believes the sum should gradually be reduced.

8. Lifting of the Gold Embargo. After making the necessary preparations above referred to, the government will lift the embargo on gold in the near future.

9. Investigation of Urgent Matters. The establishment of a social policy, the improvement of our international account and the revision of tariffs are urgent matters awaiting immediate attention. The government will appoint committees composed of learned and experienced men for the investigation of these problems. Their reports should be submitted within six months.

10. Renewal of Educational Organs. Educational organs shall be renewed as soon as financial conditions allow, since such renewal is important from the standpoint of social politics.

V. THE NEW ORIENTATION OF POLITICAL PARTIES

On July 6th when the Hamaguchi Cabinet was organised the Seiyukai, whose cabinet had just resigned, and the Shinto Club led by Mr. Tokonami, who had left the Minseito Party, were fused. The rumour of the fusion of the two parties was rampant soon after the Tanaka Cabinet decided to resign. The Seiyukai despatched one of the ministers to Prince Saionji, and reported that the two parties were about to be joined, thus maintaining an absolute majority, thereby suggesting that the political power should remain in the hands of the Seiyukai, commanding an absolute majority instead of going into the hands of the Opposition party. Prince Saionji, however, did not lose his judgement through the political intrigue of the Seiyukai politicians, and as above mentioned, he recommended that the Minseito party should form a new cabinet. His political faith in the parliamentary system did not allow him to take any other course.

The Seiyukai and the Shinto Club politicians were disappointed in failing to achieve their object, but they could not give up the idea of the fusion of the two parties, which was at last realised as previously announced. In Japan the readjustment of political parties is freely carried out to suit the convenience of the leaders, and not in the least influenced by the result of the general election. This is considered one of the most detestable political usages in Japan. We can safely predict that the list of members of any political party resulting from a general election will never be maintained until the next general election. The constant changes in the number of members in each party take place because expediency and fickleness are the guiding principles of the members' political actions. Immediately after the general election of February, 1928, the number of members in each party was as follows :

Seiyukai, 218 ; Minseito, 216 ; Independents, 17 ; Kakushinto, 3 ; Kokumin-Doshikai, 4 ; Proletarian, 8 ; Total 466.

These numbers changed as follows after seventeen months, when the Hamaguchi Cabinet was formed :

Seiyukai, 223 ; Minseito, 171 ; Shinto Club, 28 ; Kensei-Isshinkai, 6 ; Meiseikai, 1 ; Kokumin-Doshikai 3 ; Independents, 13 ; Proletarian, 7 ; Total, 456 (ten vacancies).

This change in the numbers of the party members took place not as the result of no general election or by-election.

This fact amply explains how the orientation of Japanese political parties lacks explicitness and fairness. Most of all the conduct of Mr. Tokonami, leader of the Shinto Club, is the object of severe criticism. He formerly belonged to the Seiyukai. Retiring from official circles he entered the Seiyukai. When the President of the party, Hara Kei, was assassinated at Tokyo Station, Baron Takahashi succeeded him as the leader and the party members were divided into two factions, the pro-Takahashi and the anti-Takahashi. In January, 1924, when the Kiyoura Cabinet was organized, the internal strife in the party brought it to the breaking point, and at last Mr. Tokonami, with the senior members Baron Yamamoto, Motoda, Nakahashi, and a majority of the members, left the party and organised the Seiyu-Honto Party, which supported the Kiyoura Cabinet. Against this new party the Seiyukai formed a coalition with the Kenseikai Party and the Kakushin Club for the professed purpose of protecting the Constitution. At the general election in May, 1926, the coalition parties won a great victory and the Kato (Komei Kato) Cabinet was formed. Mr. Tokonami's Seiyu-Honto, which was utterly defeated at the election, changed its organization, he himself becoming the leader. This party, however, could not long enjoy serenity. Some of the members deserted the party and went back into the Seiyukai. In the meantime Mr. Tokonami effected a rapprochement with the Kenseikai, whose cabinet was organised under Mr. Wakatsuki. When the Tanaka Cabinet appeared, the fusion of the Kenseikai and Mr. Tokonami's Seiyu-Honto was carried out in June, 1927. The new party was christened the Minseito, with Mr. Hamaguchi as its President. Mr. Tokonami, however, could not long stay in the Minseito Party, for, in August 1928, with his following he deserted the party and formed the Shinto Club, which in the 56th session of the Diet supported the Tanaka Cabinet. When the Tanaka Cabinet resigned and was succeeded by the Minseito Cabinet, his party again joined the Seiyukai, after a desertion of the party for six years.

On the occasion of the ceremony marking the fusion of the two parties, Mr. Tokonami confessed that his political activities during six years had caused suspicion among the general public, he being called a leader on the fence, and a mysterious monster.

Indeed he was regarded as a constant aspirant for political power, or a pilgrim journeying from one opposition party to another. He has little of the confidence of the nation.

What it appears quite incomprehensible to outsiders is the fact that there have appeared three small parties which did not exist immediately after the last general election. These parties are Mr. Tokonami's Shinto Club, the Kensei Isshinkai and the Meiseikai. It is a peculiar feature of Japanese constitutional government that new political parties are born without any relation whatever to the general election. This illustrates the fact that party members are influenced in their political actions by bribery, intrigue, etc., and not by the opinions of the nation as reflected in the results of a general election.

Such an orientation of political parties has begun to be detested by the general public, and a movement for a political change is on foot. In the 56th Session of the Diet (1928-9) a bill was introduced by some members of the Minseito party which stipulates that a member who leaves his party except when the party itself is dissolved shall be obliged to appeal to his consituency for approval of his change of party. Although the bill failed to become a law, its introduction reflects the desire of the public to rectify one of our greatest political evils, the lack among party members of all political faith.

Sir William Jowitt, who was returned from Breston as a Liberal, entered the MacDonald Cabinet as Attorney-General. Thinking that his change of

Mr. Tsuyoshi Inukai, New President of the Seiyukai

Mr. Takejiro Tokonami, Prominent Politician, Whose Repeated Changes of Party Lost Him the Premiership

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party was not the real will of the constituency, he resigned his membership, and decided to be newly returned as a Labourite. To the Japanese people this report was a matter of real envy.

VI. TENDENCY TO GET AROUND THE LOWER HOUSE

It is the common practice of Japanese statesmen to make light of the Lower House, and to try to do without it. They do not summon a session when it ought to be summoned. And even when it is summoned, they try to keep secret important problems which ought to be laid before the Diet. In April, 1927, the Wakatsuki Cabinet attempted to enact a bill for the relief of the Bank of Formosa without introducing it in the Diet, but by means of an urgent Imperial Decree. When the Privy Council failed to sanction the bill, the cabinet was obliged to resign. The Tanaka Cabinet had a bill for the relief of the Kawasaki Dockyard enacted by an Urgent Imperial Decree, thus ignoring the Diet. This time the Privy Council did not oppose the bill. Incidentally this attitude of the Council gave rise to the rumour that the Council itself was influenced by considerations of political partisanship.

The Tanaka Cabinet often ignored the Lower House, and showed an unconstitutional attitude toward it. The cabinet did not respect in the least the result of the general election, for by winning over members from the opposition party by bribery, intimidation, etc. it greatly changed the division of the members in the House. As to the so-called Manchurian grave problem members often asked to have it elucidate, but the government brought nothing to light, under the pretext that the affair was being investigated. Thus it will be seen that what would be a very important question in the Parliament of any foreign country can be labelled hands off in Japan.

The real motive for the resignation of the Tanaka Cabinet was the grave problem in Manchuria, but constitutional procedure requires that the problem should be introduced to the House and as the result of debate, the responsibility for the matter should be made clear, thus causing a political crisis. The cabinet, however, thanks to the Japanese traditional custom of ignoring the Diet, was able to escape the accusation of the House, but automatically was forced to be responsible for the problem, and had to resign.

The same was true with the Anti-War-Pact problem. This problem was connected with the question whether the phrase "in the name of their respective peoples" in the preamble was incompatible with the Japanese Constitution. The Cabinet was able to have it passed through the Diet, but in the Privy Council it had to make a declaration which may be taken to be a reservation. The government, which did not pay the least attention to the opinion of the Diet, easily surrendered to the Privy Council and made a reservation.

The shifting of the land and business taxes from the central government to local governments was one of the most important planks in the Tanaka Cabinet platform, and the bill was passed with the support of the deserters from the Minseito, namely, the faction led by Mr. Tokonami, but in the Upper House it was shelved. From a constitutional point of view the Tanaka Cabinet at this time had already lost its *raison d'etre*, having died a political death, and only its corpse remained. The fact that the Upper House and the Privy Council constitute more powerful factors than the Lower House for the progress of a political situation shows that in Japan constitutional rule with the Lower House at the centre under the supervision of the Sovereign is not yet firmly established. The fundametal cause for this lies in the traditional policy of the statesmen of Japan of solving political questions without consulting the Lower House. As a result of the evil tendency of ignoring the Lower House, the centre of politics is shifted from the House of Representatives to the Upper House and the Privy Council, and worse still, it is shifted to the inner rooms of spree houses in Tsukiji, Tokyo. A spree house is called a Machiai in Japanese, and Machiai politics is familiar to the nation, since they were first started by clan-politicians at the time of the Restoration. The most representative of such politicians were the late Princes Ito and Katsura, who made it their political ideal to talk politics in spree houses over saké with beautiful geisha girls waiting on them. At the time of the Restoration such politics may have been the general rule, but think of such an evil usage still preserved at the present age when constitutional government has been got into working order. The real cause of this unconstitutional attitude on the part of statesmen is not far to seek. When the constitution was promulgated, and the Diet was opened, clan governments which were not based on any political party manoeuvered the members of the Lower House by bribery, intimidation, cajolement, etc. in order to preserve their own power. The members' political morality was not strong enough to resist the intimidation and temptation of the clan governments and were only too glad to be the slaves of bureaucratic statesmen. Then the members themselves are responsible for having engendered the ignoble tendency of disregarding the popular House of the Diet.

Even now that the clan statesmen are gone, the long recognized usage of making light of the Lower House is not easily to be rooted out. Recently, however, a new tendency to pay respect to the opinion of the Lower House is visible, as is attested by the raising of the argument that the session of the Diet should be extended. The short duration of a session of the Japanese Diet will be understood by the following table:

Number of days and hours used for plenary meetings in the Lower House

Session	Days	Total Hours of a Session H.	M.	S.	Average Hours a Day H.	M.	S.
1st	63	237	00	00	3	45	43
4th	47	201	59	00	4	17	51
8th	53	152	22	00	2	52	32
9th	49	120	07	00	2	27	05
10th	33	96	52	00	2	56	07
13th	46	118	44	00	2	34	52
14th	34	99	32	00	2	55	38
15th	20	48	38	00	2	25	54
16th	29	80	47	00	2	47	08
21st	22	51	05	00	2	19	19
22nd	23	70	29	00	3	03	54
23rd	23	57	59	00	2	31	16
24th	20	60	24	00	3	01	12
25th	26	94	41	00	3	38	36
26th	27	72	08	00	2	40	18
27th	26	91	37	00	3	31	25
28th	26	76	32	00	2	56	37
30th	16	44	40	00	2	47	19
31st	27	111	05	00	4	06	51
37th	36	142	37	00	3	57	42
40th	29	102	46	00	3	32	37
41st	30	91	21	00	3	02	42
44th	36	173	42	00	4	42	48
45th	35	164	15	00	4	41	34
46th	39	183	00	00	4	41	32
50th	38	165	00	00	4	21	11
51st	37	185	15	00	5	00	24
52nd	32	136	49	00	4	16	32
Total	922	3,231	51	00	—		
Average	32.93	115	25	24	3	30	19

It will be seen that in 28 ordinary sessions, excluding extraordinary and special sessions, the days for plenary meetings are 33 on the average, representing 115 hours 25 minutes and 24 seconds. The length of a meeting is three hours thirty minutes and nineteen seconds on the average. The time spent for rest, etc. is excluded from the above while the time wasted in quarrels, turmoil etc. is excluded. If it were included, the time for meetings would further be reduced. Such short duration of sessions is to be found nowhere else in the world.

The Duke of Gloucester as the Garter Envoy

THE Order of the Garter, the highest emblem of honour the British sovereign can confer, was presented to a Japanese Emperor for the third time on May 3rd this year by King George V. through His Royal Highness the Duke of Gloucester, who came to Japan for the purpose on May 2nd. The Order of the Garter was accorded to the Emperor Meiji in 1906 and to the Emperor Taisho in 1912, strengthening the bond of friendship between the royal families of Japan and Great Britain. The Duke's last visit has marked a new strengthening of this bond. We dedicate a part of the present supplement to the Duke.

The Duke of Gloucester reache Tokyo Station at 10:35 o'clock a was received on No. 3 platform b His Majesty the Emperor, who h had a few minutes' wait. He abo hands and exchanged greetings wi His Majesty, who introduced him the Princes of the Blood presen On the platform there had been wa ing to welcome the Duke, beside a guard of honour, Premier Tana and other cabinet members, Govern Hiratsuka, Mayor Horikiri, and promi inent members of both houses o the Diet. Then the Duke rode wit Prince Chichibu in a decorated Im perial coach drawn by four horse to the Kasumigaseki Palace whe

H. R. H. the Duke of Gloucester

ARRIVAL IN TOKYO

H. M. S. Suffolk, aboard which the Duke of Gloucester sailed from Hongkong, with four destroyers and fifty-three seaplanes acting as escort, entered the port of Yokohama at 8 o'clock on the morning of May 2nd when the naval vessels in port fired a salute of 21 guns.

As the Suffolk came alongside No. 4 Pier, Prince Chichibu went on board and greeted personally the Royal Prince, who appeared in uniform. A little later the Duke, followed by the other members of the Garter Mission, stepped ashore, while a naval band played the British National Anthem, and inspected a naval guard of honour at the pier. He walked slowly between cheering ranks of school children to the railway station, where he took a special train for Tokyo.

he was to stay.

CEREMONY OF INVESTITURE

The ceremony of the presentation of the Order of the Garter was observed with stately antique ritual in th Throne Room of the Imperial Palac on the next morning (May 3rd) i presence of the most exalted personage of the Empire.

Below the dais in the Throne Room to the left were stationed Admir Suzuki, the Grand Chamberlain, an some Household officials. To th right stood Prince Chichibu, Prin Takamatsu, Prince Kan-in and othe Princes of the Blood. There were also present such dignitaries as Ad miral Togo, Field-Marshals Oku an Uyehara and others.

As the time came, the Duke Gloucester, in the uniform of a

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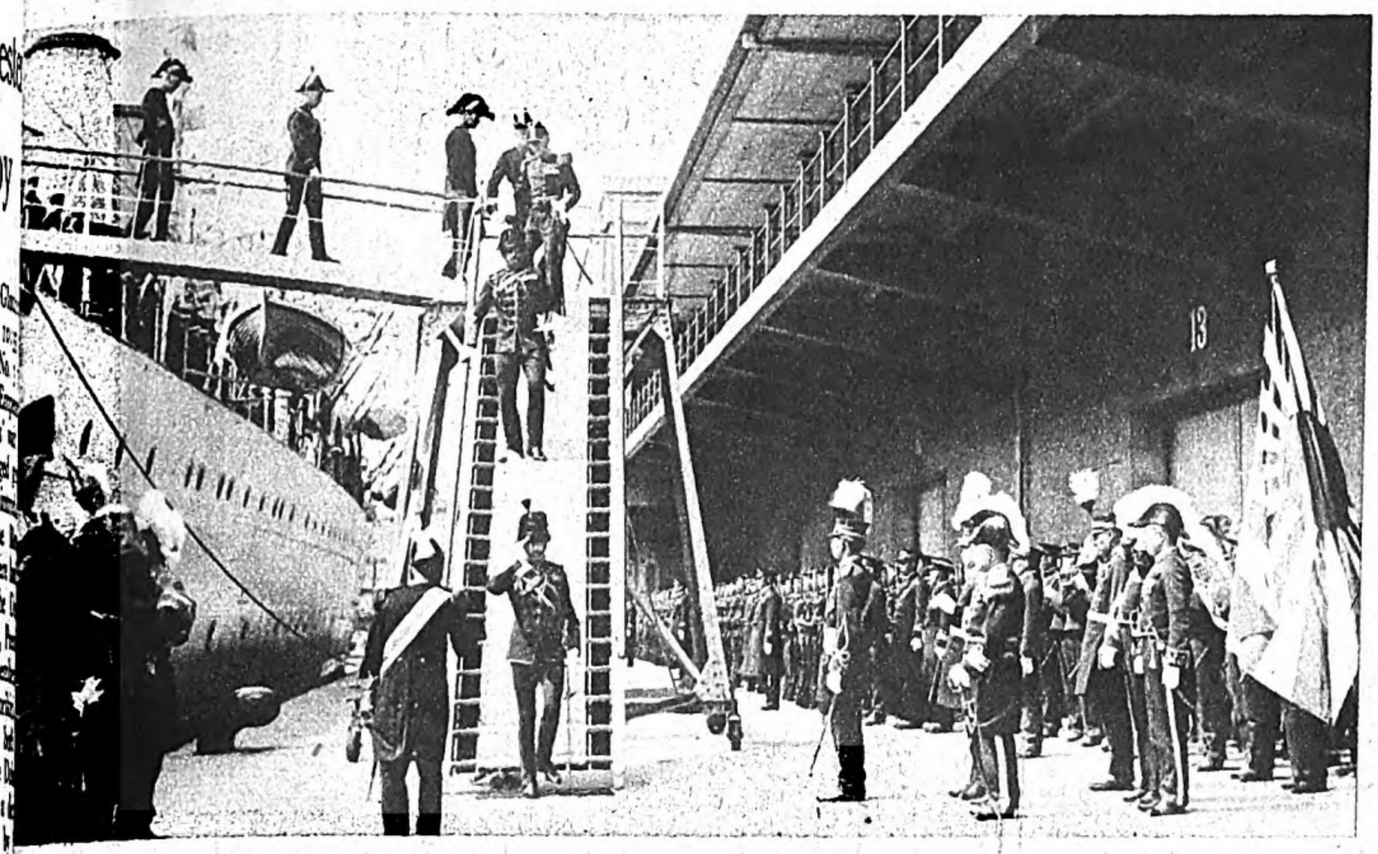


Welcomed by Prince Chichibu at Yokohama

fficer of the Hussars, and his suite ntered the Throne Room, preceded y Viscount Okabe, Deputy Grand Master of Ceremonies. The Emperr, in the full uniform of a Generlissimo, with white knee-breeches nd top-boots, was standing in front f the Throne and Sir John Tilley, he British Ambassador, announced he names of the members of the mision. First came forward Mr. Hugh loyd Thomas, carrying the Address ; hen Captain L. W. H. Kerr, carrying he Hat and Mantle ; Major-General lles, carrying the Garter ; Rear-Adiral Meade, carrying the Collar of he Order ; and the Earl of Airlie, arrying the Riband and George and tar of the Order. The first three took ositions on one side and the other wo opposite them so as to make a ne for the Duke to pass through. he Duke came last, advancing through he lane to the Throne.

When the Duke of Gloucester had aken his position a few steps before he Throne, he read the Address in clear and loud voice :

"Sirs,

"I have it in command from

Shopping in Kyoto

The King-Emperor, my August Master and Royal Father, to ask Your Imperial Majesty's acceptance of the Insignia of his Most Noble Order of the Garter, than which no higher mark of friendship and esteem is in His Majesty's power to bestow....."

Then he handed the Emperor an autograph letter from the King and the warrant. His Majesty expressed his gratification in accepting the Garter and also expressed hearty wishes for the King's speedy restoration of health. Then the Duke knelt below the Throne and buckled the Garter to the Emperor's left leg. Next he placed the Riband over the Emperor's shoulder across the body under the right arm and pinned the George and the Star on his breast. The other details of the ceremony made the investiture complete.

His Majesty, who was much pleased with the investiture, visited in person the Duke at Kasumigaseki and conferred on him the Golden Collar of the Chrysanthemum, the highest symbol of Japanese chivalry. In the evening His Majesty gave a state banquet, the second great function of the day, in the Imperial Palace in honour of the Duke. Towards the end of the banquet the Emperor rose and proposed the toast of King George.

OFFICIAL STAY IN TOKYO

On the day following the investiture (May 4th), the Duke of Gloucester visited in the morning the Tokyo Imperial University, where he met Dr. Kiheiji Onozuka, president of the university, the other members of the faculty and 3,000 students. At the Memorial Hall he presented to the president a Shakespeare medal, the gift of the Japan Society of London. In the afternoon he was the guest of honour at a garden party given by the Japan British Society and a dinner party at the English Embassy.

On Sunday morning (May 5th) His Royal Highness attended divine service in St. Andrew's Church, which was filled by British residents. From the church he went to the Tokyo Club and dined with the Oxford and Cambridge graduates of Tokyo, among whom were Prince Chichibu, Baron Hayashi, and the British Ambassador.

The Duke rode far into the country on the 6th to visit the Cavalry School at Narashino, Chiba prefecture. At the school he was welcomed by General Shirakawa, War Minister, General Umezaki, president of the school, and other officials and was conducted to one of the riding grounds, where was held an exhibition of equestrian feats by picked riders. Afterwards the Duke mounted the best horse in school, rode about the plain, and saw cavalry exercises, in which two armoured cars, eight airplanes and the anti-aircraft corps also participated.

On the morning of the 7th the Duke visited the Tama Mausoleum, where he paid his respects to the memory of the Emperor Taisho. At night he was present at a dinner and a ball given by Premier Tanaka at his official residence, where a special entertainment was provided by a prominent Kabuki actor, Onoye Kikugoro, who danced his favourite pieces.

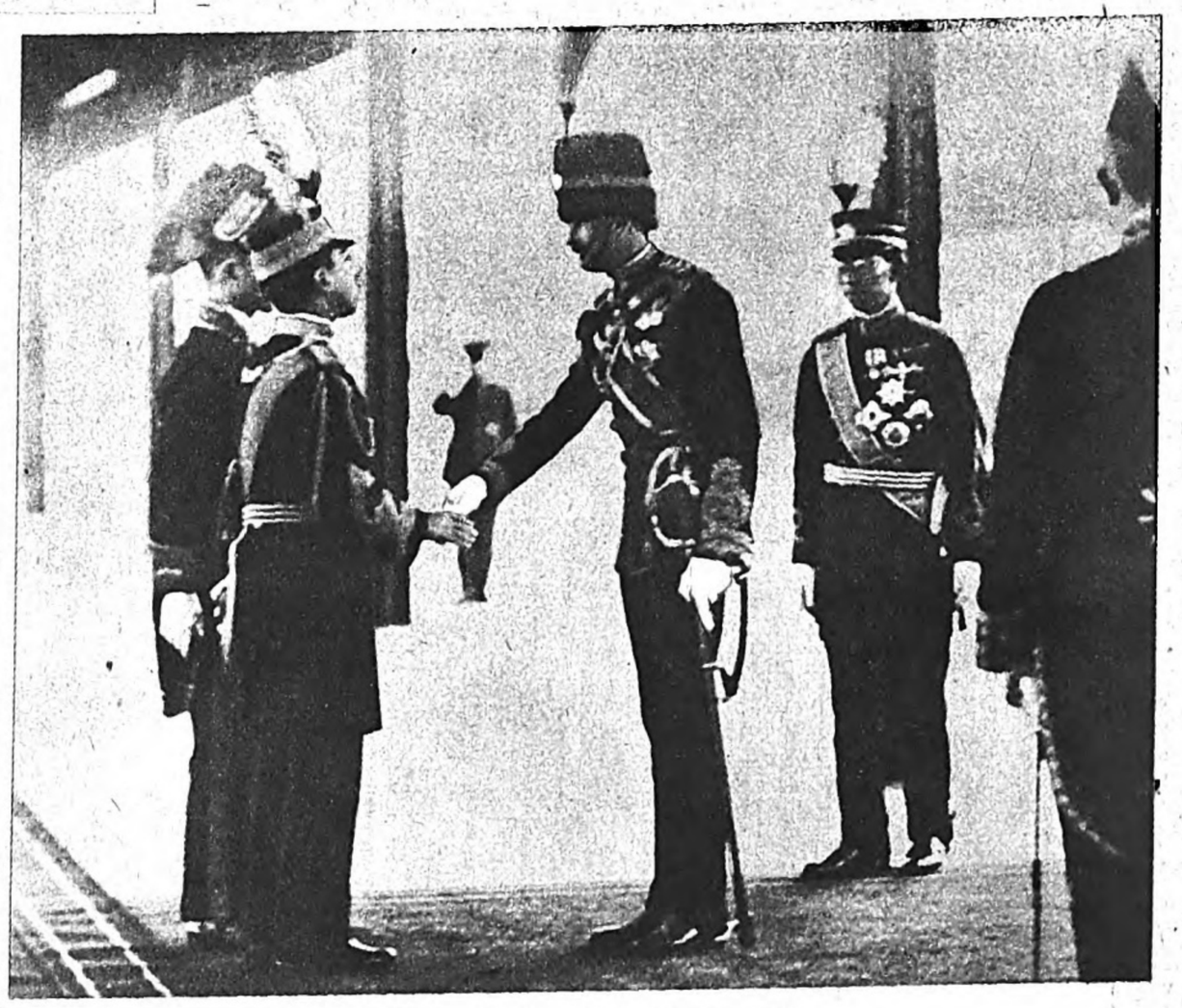
The visitor's schedule for the 8th started with golf at the Komazawa links, which consumed the entire morning. In the evening he invited Princes of the Blood, the Premier, the British Ambassador and other officials to a dinner at the Kasumigaseki Palace to return the courtesy paid by them. The next day (9th) was the last day of his official stay in Tokyo as the guest of the Imperial Household Department. The day's programme was principally a farewell luncheon in the Imperial Palace, at which the Emperor was the host. There the Duke met for the first time the Empress and the Empress Dowager. The last item on the programme was attendance at the Kabuki Theatre, on the way to which the Duke met a colourful lantern parade held by 2,000 students in his honour.

TRIP TO WESTERN JAPAN

The official stay in Tokyo ending, the Duke of Gloucester, now in sack suits, bade good-bye to Tokyo on the morning of the 10th, boarding a train for Nikko at Harajuku Station, and started on a sight-seeing tour of Japan.

His Royal Highness arrived at Kyoto, the ancient capital, on Tuesday evening (14th) and put up at the Miyako Hotel. On the next morning (15th) he visited the Momoyama Mausoleum of the Emperor Meiji and offered a wreath of white lilies and roses. Then in the afternoon, while motoring to the banks of the River Hozu, he suddenly stopped his car before a peasant's house to the great surprise of his attendants. He entered the house and asked questions of the peasants. This episode of his stay in Japan deeply impressed the people. Afterwards he shot the Hozu rapids.

The Duke had it in mind to visit Osaka but cancelled his trip in view of the plague there. After a round of visits to Nara, Kure and Itsukushima, he reached Kobe on the cruiser Oi on the evening of May 20th. On the following morning (21st) he performed two ceremonies, both of them concerned with British educational work in Japan. First he laid the foundation stone for the new Shoin Jogakko and then at the new site of the Canadian Academy unveiled the inscription on the cairn newly erected there.



Welcomed to Tokyo by the Emperor

Feeding the Deer at Nara

LEAVING JAPAN

On May 23rd the Duke of Gloucester, after a busy sojourn of 22 days, took leave of Japan and her people at 3 : 40 p. m. on the Empress of Asia which sailed from Yokohama for Canada. At the pier Prince Chichibu bade adieu to the Garter Envoy from the British Empire.

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Authorized Capital ¥31,000,000

ESTABLISHED IN 1881

HEAD OFFICE:

Onoda, Yamaguchi-ken, Japan.

WORKS:

Onoda. Onoda, Yamaguchi-ken.
Yawata. Yawata, Fukuoka-ken.
Dairen. Dairen, Kwang-tung, Manchuria.
Heijō. Shōkōri, Heian-Nandō, Chōsen.
Aichi. Nagoya, Aichi-ken
Sennai. Sennairi, Kankyō-Nandō, Chōsen.

PRODUCING CAPACITY
Yearly 1,050,000 tons.
Jun. 1929.

BRANCH OFFICES:

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Sole Agent:

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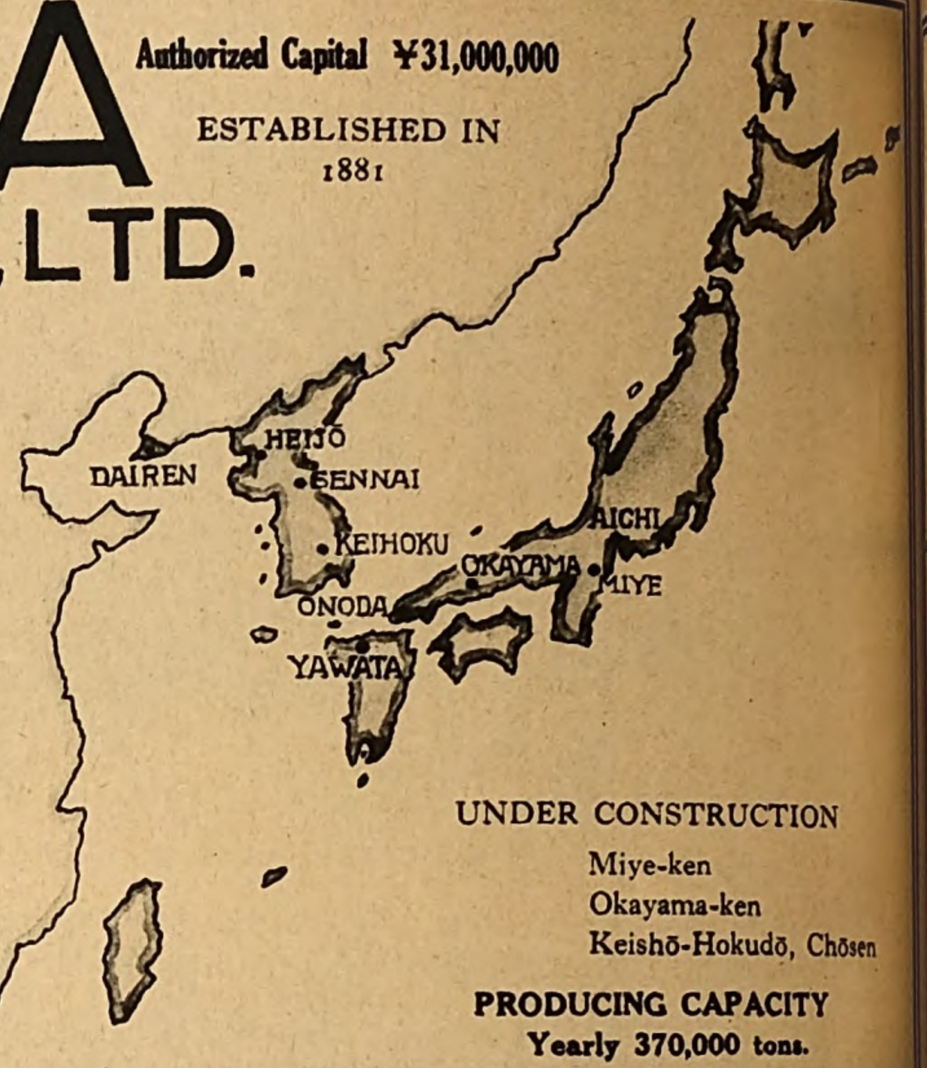

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Miye-ken
Okayama-ken
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PRODUCING CAPACITY
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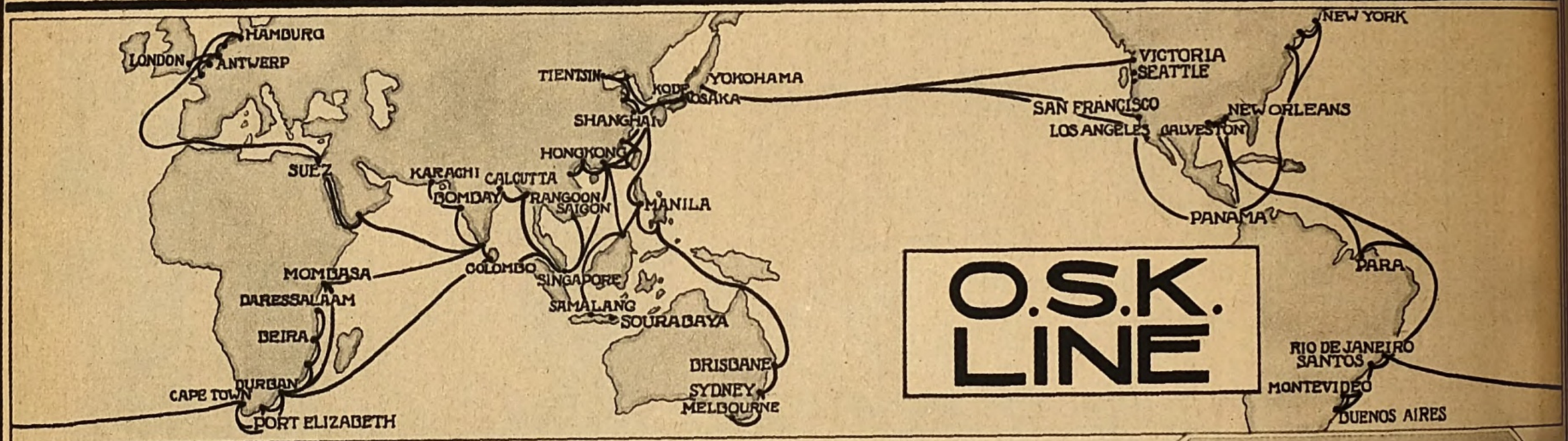

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TAILOR

Arimoto Yofuku Honten

Koraibashi 4-chome, Higashi-ku, OSAKA.

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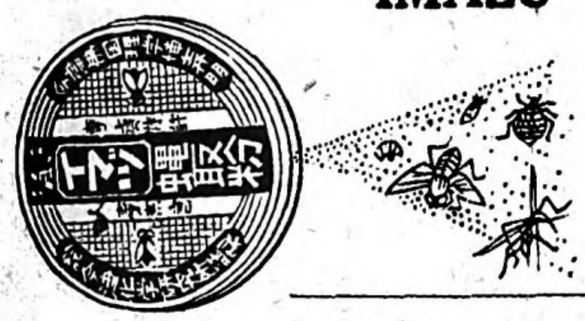

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THE ADMINISTRATION OF CHOSEN

The trade of Chosen covers the principal countries of the world with Japan heading the list with 93% of the export and 67% of the import. The more important foreign countries concerned in the trade are China and Russia for export, and China, the United States, and England for import.

TABLE

PRODUCTION AND INDUSTRY

AGRICULTURE

Korea is a strictly agricultural country, the amount of farm products now representing 72% of the entire production, while 80% of the population is supported by farming.

Since the advent of the new regime, rapid progress has been made in the introduction of advanced methods, thereby bringing about remarkable increase in farm products.

ARABLE LAND: Arable land in Korea now occupies 4,590,000 *cho*, or about 20 per cent. of the entire area of the country, of which 1,580,000 *cho* are under rice. Uncultivated land with farming possibilities along rivers only is estimated at 73,000 *cho*.

RICE: Rice is the staple product, followed by wheat, barley, soya beans, cotton, etc. The cereal is excellent in quality. The year 1910 saw a crop of 10 million *koku*, whereas in 1927 it was over 17 million *koku*, of which 6.7 million *koku* was exported to Japan.

WHEAT AND BARLEY: Barley is chiefly raised in the south, while the wheat belts are found in west and north Korea. The crop of both totalled 1.2 million *koku* in 1910. whereas in 1927 it climbed as high as 9 million *koku*.

SOYA-BEANS: The yield of soya-beans is yearly on the increase and reached 4 million *koku* in 1927.

COTTON: Lands under cotton have an area of 60,000 *cho*. Seeds from the United States have been introduced, thereby improving the quality. The output in 1927 was about 150 million *kin* whereas in 1910 it was only 21 million *kin*.

SERICULTURE: Cocoons produced in the year preceding the annexation amounted to 14,000 *koku*, and rose to 355,000 *koku* in 1927, of which 29% was consumed in Chosen. The Government is executing a plan aiming at the production of a million *koku* within 15 years from 1925.

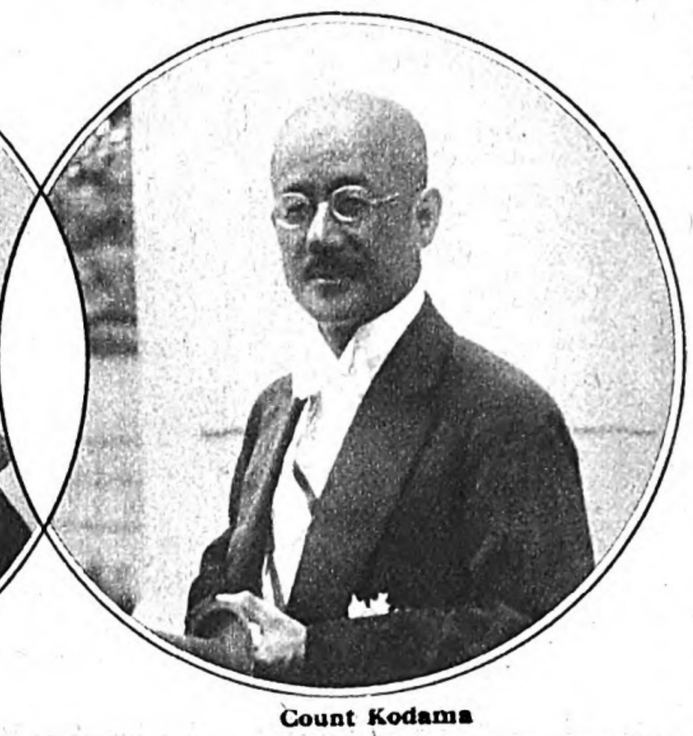
STOCK-FARMING: Stock-farming is also promising in Korea, cattle being the most important as they are indispensable to Korean farmers for labour purposes, while the flesh is very palatable. 48,000 head were exported to Japan, Manchuria and Siberia in 1927, and the demand is still increasing.

GINSENG AND TOBACCO: Production of these two are Government monopolies in Chosen. The former as a medical herb has long been regarded as precious. "Red "ginseng brings a high price, and the product in 1925 was valued at ¥2,658,000. The output of tobacco in 1927 was estimated at ¥30,000,000.

LAND RECLAMATION

In view of the growing population the question of food supply calimed first consideration, and to secure increased production of rice a fifteen-year programme was formulated in 1926 aiming at the improvement of some 400,000 chobu of undeveloped lands. As this important enterprise did not make the progress, the plan was revised in 1926 to permit of completion in 12 years of the work on 350,000 chobu capable of being converted into rich paddy-fields by means of reclamation and irrigation. To further this work, formation of irrigation societies is being encouraged by the Government by granting them subventions.

Viscount Saito



Count Kodama

GIST OF STATEMENT

by Viscount Saito,

Governor-General, issued on July 7, 1929.

The administration of Chosen, needless to say, is a permanent state work, and should not be subjected to change with each ministerial change at home, for such only creates a sense of insecurity in the populace. Being appointed to my present post, I am resolved to do my very best to fulfil the great task before me even at the cost of personal sacrifice, though I am well on in years and unequal to it. The administrative policy should be in accord with the progress of the times, as well as with the change in social conditions, so it may be found necessary to reorganize or discontinue some of the works now being executed and to adopt special measures for promotion of the popular welfare and benefit. It is my intention therefore to enforce reform and economy where necessary and at the same time continue executing certain works as far as the budget will admit of so doing. In the light of the prevailing situation it is perhaps impossible to overestimate the importance of official discipline, and public morality and diligence. Still, if all exercise scrupulous care in this respect, and go on discharging their duties in real earnest, it should not be too difficult to establish a fine and peaceful society in which every single individual may realize his true self and live an enjoyable life.

FORESTRY

Chosen being so mountainous, forestland occupies about 71% of the entire area, and its flora is rich, as many as 700 species being found. But the management of forests was long neglected, thereby with the result that mountains and hills were denuded by careless and wanton felling. Since the annexation much attention has been given to them and a proper system of management worked out. Reforestation has been assiduously carried on, and the preservation of existing forests has been efficiently maintained. The most important forest zones are found along the upper reaches of the Yalu and Tumen on the border. Private afforestation undertakings are being encouraged by the grant of a subsidy or of saplings gratis.

FISHERY

With a lengthy coastline of over 10,000 miles Chosen is favourably situated as regards fisheries. The varieties of aquatic products taken from her waters already number 84. Improvement and methods in this business hitherto unknown have been widely introduced.

The catches of ¥8,000,000 in 1910 rose to ¥64,000,000 in 1927, prepared aquatic products in the same period rose from ¥2,600,000 to ¥43,000,000. Mackerel, sardine, Alaska pollack, herring, sea-bream, cod, yellow tail, whale, and ear-shell are the principal catches.

SALT: Production of salt by natural process is a Government enterprise, and the annual output being 180,000,000 *kin*, it meets half the entire consumption of it in the country.

MINING

Gold, iron, coal, graphite, copper, zinc and tungsten are the principal minerals found in Korean soil, though nearly every kind is found except sulphur, petroleum and asphalt.

INDUSTRY

The Koreans are a deft race, and their mats, ceramics and similar wares are by no means despicable. The industries that offer bright prospects in the peninsula are fabrics, spinning, paper, ceramics, hides and leathers, liquors, metal works, etc. Though the manufacturing industry in Korea is still in its infancy, marked progress has been made, for in 1910 there were only 151 factories turning out ¥9,230,000 worth of commodities, while at the end of 1927, there were 4,911 factories with an aggregate capital of ¥542,700,000 and an output valued at ¥325,402,000.

OUTPUT OF LEADING MANUFACTURES IN 1927

Silk Tissues	¥14,619,000
Textiles	28,706,000
Papers & Paperworks	7,575,000
Ceramics	9,999,000
Metal Works	14,796,000
Wood Works	6,553,000
Straw Works	20,001,000
Cloth Works	16,026,000
Liquors	58,819,000
Flour	11,939,000
Tobacco	31,833,000
Manures	10,112,000
Sugar	9,138,000
Others	88,284,000
Total	328,400,000

PEOPLE'S FINANCIAL ASSOCIATIONS IN KOREA

One of the remarkable achievements in Korean administration has been the development of people's financial associations. These associations have each a membership of 1,000 and a combined membership of 530,000, which has paid ¥8,000,000 into the enterprise.

For furthering their development, there is a federation of these associations for each *Do*, or Prefecture, and a national organization with which all the associations are affiliated.

COMMUNICATIONS

STATE RAILWAYS.

Railways were first introduced in Korea in 1900, by the opening of a line between Keijo (Seoul) and Jinsen (Chemulpo). The year 1901 saw the completion of the Keijo-Fusan Line, which was followed by an extension from Keijo to Shingishu, terminal on the border near the mouth of the Yalu, the two forming a trunk line traversing the peninsula lengthwise, a distance of 590 miles. Connecting with the S. M. R. at Antung, it is part of the international route from Tokyo to Paris via Siberia. Another important main line is the Kankyo Line running from Keijo to Kwainei. The entire length of state railways in Korea now stands at 1,586 miles.

THE KEYNOTE OF KOREAN ADMINISTRATION

Count Kodama,

Chief of Administrative Affairs.

"There is a saying "Onko-Chishin" (Look back upon the past and know how to meet the future) and this I think is the secret of government, it essentially teaching the virtue of taking a leaf out of the book of a wise man of the past. It is, however, not quite advisable to stick to the past, neither is it advisable to rush forward to novelty. The proverbial golden means holds good also in this case, in other words, it is best to adopt new things and orders that can be well assimilated and add them to the old things and orders that have stood the actual test of time and are still in force on their own merits. As you know, I have come here to serve as assistant to the Governor-General, and I hope all of you will understand my position and assit me in the discharge of my duties. I take this occasion to point out that it is very important that good and strict official discipline should be maintained, particularly in such a place as Chosen, for with it I believe the administration of Chosen can gain more credit with the public at large and make itself better understood internationally.

VOLUME OF TRADE

(in ¥1,000)

Year	Export to: Foreign Countries	Export to: Japan	Export to: Total	Import from: Foreign Countries	Import from: Japan	Import from: Total
1927	28,133	320,792	358,924	113,943	269,473	383,417
1926	24,779	338,175	362,954	123,933	248,235	372,169
1925	24,341	317,388	341,729	105,388	234,623	340,011
1924	22,379	306,660	329,039	97,776	211,817	309,593
1923	20,403	241,262	261,665	98,338	167,452	265,790
1912	5,616	15,369	20,985	26,359	40,756	67,115

PRINCIPAL EXPORTS FOR 1927

	(1,000 Yen)		(1,000 Yen)
Rice	191,574	Gold ore	1,451
Beans	22,941	Iron ore	1,084
Fish	12,968	Iron	6,021
Nori (Dried Laver)	2,738	Graphite	997
Seaweeds	1,257	Cow hides	2,444
Ginseng	2,032	Cattle	3,420
Cotton	4,290	Pulp	849
Cocoons	4,399	Fertilizer	7,191
Raw silk	25,865	Timber	3,161

PRINCIPAL IMPORTS FOR 1927

Millet	31,649	Cotton fabrics	1.549
Rice	19,260	Silk Tissue	9,292
Flour	6,196	Woolen fabrics	5,118
Sugar	7,735	Paper	7,287
Sake	1,410	Rails	3,302
Beer	2,057	Machines	9,420
Salt	2,381	Tobacco	5,570
Petroleum	5,898	Coal	10,732
Ginned cotton	6,415	Wood	10,640
Cotton yarn	6,495	Cement	2,904
Sheetings	21,353		

PRIVATE RAILWAYS

The number of private railway companies operating in Korea at the end of March 1927 was 7 with 2 companies constructing new lines. There were also 3 electric tramway companies operating 28.15 miles with charters granting the right to construct 731 additional miles.

NAVIGATION

The year 1928 saw the marine services in Korea operating 124 lines with 176 vessels of 99,970 tons. The routes were (1) Interport (2) Korea-Japan (3) Korea-Foreign countries.

AD.

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Japan's Political Position in the World Community

IN the ashes of the great conflagration which surrounded humanity with red flames of terror for more than four years, was transplanted from the dreamland of pacifists a "frail flower of peace" which was to thrive in the real world of desolated peoples, suffering through all history from brutal and sanguinary methods of settling disputes.

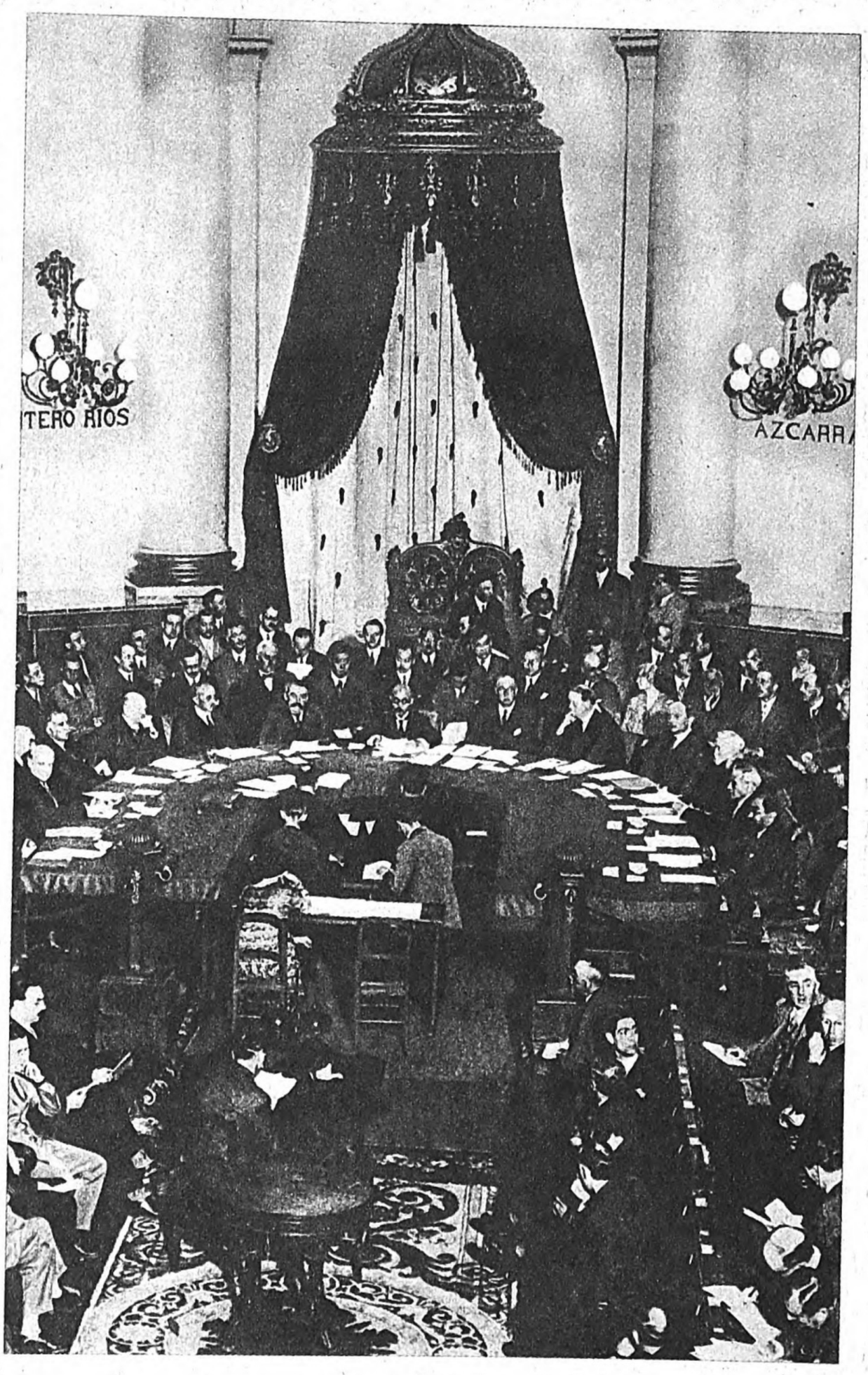
With the creation of the League of Nations to realise the unanimous hope of public opinion to end war, Japan became one of the leading Powers in international politics; for Article IV of the Covenant of the League provides Japan with the right and obligation to sit permanently on the Council together with the United States of America, Great Britain, France and Italy (lately also with Germany; while the U. S. of America declined the invitation to become a member of the body). Thus, this insular nation of the Far East which, since its discovery by Marco Polo has been always considered merely a favorite objective for tourists or esthetes because of the beauty of the land and the charm of the inhabitants, has come to play a leading part on the stage of world politics. In fact, as the only non-European permanent member of the international organisation, its impartial and highly respected position becomes of vital importance, especially when the League of Nations has to deal with some delicate political problem or difficulty. Such was the case when the Upper-Silesian problem in 1921, the Corfu affair in 1923 and the reform of the composition of the Council in 1926 menaced the existence of the peace machine of Geneva.

In various international conferences held under the auspices of the League of Nations, Japan, in spite of its geographical drawbacks and other moral and material difficulties, never fails to show its great interest in and sympathy for the cause and the work of the League. She has indeed spared no effort to send qualified delegates and experts, with effective cooperation in view.

Besides these delegates sent from time to time by the Government, there are a number of Japanese who work permanently in the different institutions of the League, performing their duties as international civil servants. We are particularly proud to see Japan well represented by the presence of Dr. Y. Sugimura as one of the Under-Secretaries General, in charge of the political affairs of the international organ. The right hand of the Secretary-General and the essential motor of wisdom and skill of the peace machine, Dr. Sugimura's contribution cannot be overestimated in its importance both for Japan and for the world at large.

The League of Nations is to-day composed of 54 Member-States whose peoples represent three-fourths of the world's population. The admission of Germany in September 1926 constituted the dawn of a new era in the political history of Europe. This entry signified not only participation in the common cause of peace and justice by a nation composed of sixty millions of human beings with abundant resources of intellectual, economic and social power, brilliant in science and industry. The admission of the chief enemy of the allied Powers in the World War meant, first of all, the putting into effect of the Locarno Agreement, the real prelude of a general code of peace, which will enable Europe to work in tranquillity and pursue its natural destined course in peace with the desired guarantee of security. Therefore, it is no exaggeration to say that real peace came to Europe only in 1926 with the Locarno Agreement and the admission of Germany into the League.

Among the several lines of cleavage along which the "European crystal" is threatening to split, the Rhine remains unchangingly the *point de départ* of European politics, upon the direction of which, good or bad, will depend the prosperity or ruin of the Continent. The Locarno Agreement made a good start in the direction of prosperity, and we are happy to note that the march is being hopefully continued by the recent negotiations on the reparations problem, the final settlement of which is the key of European peace.



Ambassador Adachi Presiding at the Meeting of the Council of the League of Nations at Madrid

Beyond Europe, the world. After peace in Europe, peace in the world .....Japan, as we see from the composition of the Council and machinery of the Locarno Treaties, is the only permanent member of the Council which is neither European nor Locarnist. This situation makes her a somewhat supreme arbiter in any dispute which may arise with regard to the execution of the Covenant of the League and the Treaties of Locarno.

While there is no doubt that Europe breathes in greater security, the task delegated to the League of Nations is not limited only to Europe. As a matter of fact, the League has suffered greatly because of its incompleteness in the absence of two of the great Powers: the Union of the Socialist Soviet Republics of Russia and the United States of America, without the assistance of which we can never expect real and everlasting peace in the world. The United States of America emerged from the War as the richest and perhaps the greatest world Power, and her non-membership in the League brings considerable loss to its moral and economic influence. The self-exclusion of the Union of the Socialist Soviet Republics, potent in world political and social factors, is also to be deplored, since in many countries the labor elements still hesitate to-day to give full support, which they might voluntarily offer to a universal League for the enforcement of peace. Accordingly the Kellogg Pact for the renunciation of war, the pact which became effective after ratification by the Emperor of Japan and to which Soviet Russia is an adherent party, has greatly strengthened the cooperation of these Powers with the work of the League,.....cooperation which had already existed in many domains of the League's activities. Thus, after ten years of its existence, the League is going to become an essential part of the machinery for regulating the relations between nations. We reiterate here our sincere hope that Japan may act as a peaceful intermediary to bring officially these two great neighbours into the heart of the world community. She ought to do all she can to emphasise what to our mind is the cardinal point of the League, its universality.

Besides the Union of the Soviet Republics and the United States, Japan has, as her neighbour, the Republic of China which, though a member of the League from the beginning, still finds herself in a chaotic state as a consequence of interminable fighting between powerful generals. With culture and race in common, and solidarity in economics and industries, Japan is duty-bound to help young China realise her rightful aspirations of national unity and prosperity. Peace will never be born in the East until there is political unification in China. And the best guarantee for peace in the Far East lies in reciprocal respect for national personality, which seems to us to be the real secret of preserving the good relations between the two brother nations. Between them, peace may be maintained for a time even in the presence of ill will, but it cannot last long. Between them, misunderstandings may exist even while the spirit of mutual confidence lives, but they will disappear in the long run.

It is true that the League has up to now been occupied chiefly with the European political questions, but these were merely the outcome of certain transient historical conditions and in years to come its chief political work may lie as naturally in the East as it now lies in Europe. With peace in Europe, peace in Asia and peace in the Pacific,....on these three peaces as foundation stones, the temple of world peace can be definitively built. Then, which nation in the world is more capable than Japan of this task of coordinating divers elements for world peace? This is evidently a very difficult task but a task worthy of the efforts of all humanity.

The year 1929 began in a brighter atmosphere of international relations. The wind that carries peace is rising, the air is getting warmer with mutual confidence between nations. The ardent hope of the peoples is being voiced never so strongly the world over with a view to carrying out the reduction of armaments,... armaments which are to-day nothing less than the expression of human follies based on enmity and distrust between nations.

The security of peoples by armed force can never be anything but a relative security, which, in the light of suspicion, turns immediately into insecurity. History shows us clearly that even the most powerful nations may find themselves in a situation where the greatest precautions become of no avail. There is a security greater than the security provided by armaments, the security which humanity can obtain by following the highway of cooperation among the nations of the world in the spirit of international solidarity.

Such is, briefly speaking, the position that Japan seems to occupy in present-day relations in international politics. It is our earnest desire that Japan may not be ignorant of the very important rôle, with the fulfilment of which she is entrusted, and that she may do her utmost in helping to command, with faith and tact, the ship of disarmament which is ready to navigate the ocean of good will and conciliation.

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Antipodes

By a Japanese Idler

IT is not in love-making alone that a misunderstanding often leads to serious consequences. To misunderstand a nation is far more serious for human-kind than for a lover to lose his sweetheart through a misunderstanding. Western people often fail to understand the Japanese because the psychological differences between them and the Japanese are poles apart. The differences in customs and traditions are not such difficult obstacles to understanding a nation, because they are quite easily conquered through books and other helps, but psychological differences often prove insurmountable difficulties in the thorough understanding of a foreign nation. To understand the psychology of a nation is no easy task, requiring, as it does, that a foreign observer shall stay in the country for a considerable period, living among people of all classes and of different callings. But opportunity of doing this is denied to foreign observers in Japan, should they be famous in the eyes of the Japanese. Such visitors are sure to be welcomed by the courteous people of Japan, whose excessive kindness often becomes a nuisance to them. The well-known foreigner who lands at Yokohama or Kobe is sure to be met by official or semi-official representatives who speak fluent English, or by voluntary linguists who are more Western than Japanese in manners and sentiments. From these people the foreign gentleman gets the same stereotype information about Japan and the Japanese. He will be told that the nation is pro-American or pro this and that, and many like things. Of course his informants have not the least intention of misrepresenting the Japanese, but they do not like to offend the foreign visitor, make careful choice in giving him information and tell only the bright side of the story. Paradoxical as it may sound, you can not get correct and honest information from linguists or officials.

Dr. Frederick Starr, the American scholar, is perhaps one of the few foreign gentlemen who really understand Japan. He did not get his information from officials or linguists. In order to gain a real knowledge of the Japanese people, he avoided big cities and went into the interior of the country and freely associated with people of all kinds, most of whom are not westernised. He was attired in Japanese silk clothes, and became a Japanese in outward appearance as well as spiritually. In this way he obtained a real knowledge of things Japanese and probably understood the Japanese psychologically. Dr. Starr's observations on Japan are, on this account very weighty and authoritative. Lafcadio Hearn is one of the famous literary men who really understood Japan. He married a Japanese lady, and lived *à la Mode Japonaise* at Matsue, a small town in the middle of Japan.

The Japanese have a curious (to the eye of the Westerner) habit of observing unnecessary forms of salutation or courtesy. All western travellers must have witnessed in the streets of Japanese cities two Japanese, exchanging greetings by bending their waists at an angle of 90 degrees, so that their upper bodies make a horizontal line, the two heads meeting in the middle. This salutation is repeated several times, so that the Westerner who first sees it may well suppose that they are going through gymnastic exercises in the middle of the street. Among these old-fashioned people, a Japanese youth who is quite westernised often makes an awkward situation. If he stands upright in greeting others without even bending his head, as he is wont to do with Europeans, he is sure to offend conservative persons

Dr. Starr of Chicago University Crossing Nihon Bashi, Tokyo, in Japanese Costume

who think him a youngster most haughty and disrespectful to his elders.

The Japanese, in addressing a letter to a friend, always pays undue respect to him, using adjectives in the superlative degree, while in mentioning themselves and the members of their own families, they use the most

The Footless Double Ghost of a Pair of Suicides, a Wood Cut by Toyokuni

humble words. For instance, a husband calls his wife "stupid wife" and his son "pig son." The same person addresses his friend as "the most respected and honorable" etc. etc. A modern young Japanese who addressed his wife as "my darling" or "my love" in the presence of conservative Japanese would be sure to be frowned at or even called bad names.

The Japanese zealously adhere to formality or ceremony in public, but as a matter of course they do not mean what they say, or rather what they show. A conservative husband who scolds his wife for nothing before his acquaintances may bestow on her the sweetest of kisses when the coast is clear.

A Westerner praises his children or wife in the presence of his friends, but a Japanese would never do that. If you pat the head of a man's young son saying what a bright boy he is, you will be met with the reply, "Oh no, not bright at all. On the contrary, he is the dullest boy in the world." The Japanese seem to think that to praise the members of one's family is against the morality of modesty.

The land of Japan and the Western countries are antipodes and naturally the habits of the Japanese and those of the Western poeples are mostly antipodal. To give a few remarkable examples, in counting on the fingers the Japanese begins with the thumb and closes his fingers one after another. He cannot begin with the little finger, because in bending it first the third finger bends at the same time, whereas if he bends the third finger first, the little finger does not bend, but remains straight. The westerner, on the contrary, seems to count by opening his fingers one at a time from a closed hand or by touching the open fingers of one hand with the index finger of the other.

The Bow in Japan

Western books are read from left to right, while Japanese and Chinese books are read from right to left. Japanese words are written from top to bottom, so that when the first line is finished, the next line begins at the left. When you see a Japanese reading a Japanese book his eyes move from top to bottom line after line. When this is repeated quickly in constant succession you cannot be sure whether the eyes are moving from top to bottom or from bottom to top. An English journalist who saw a Japanese reading a manuscript on a public occasion remarked that the Japanese language is read from bottom to top!

The method of handing over change is just the opposite in Japan and the West. If you purchase something worth one yen and seventy-five sen, and pay with a ten yen note, the Japanese merchant will give you eight yen first, then twenty sen, and finally five sen. But the western merchant will give you first five sen, then twenty sen, and finally eight yen. Well, of course the western method is more reasonable as far as counting is concerned, but it has this drawback that the big money is always payed last, while in the Japanese method the biggest change is payed first, and the smaller amounts later. Perhaps the western merchant wishes to keep in his hand as long as possible the big change belonging to his customer. If it were possible to prove this, we might contend that the Western method of paying change is arithmetically correct, and the Japanese method morally correct.

In a Japanese stable horses are kept with thir heads facing out, while in a Western stable they are kept the other way round. Which method is better, one might well ask. Both have their defects. When the horse's head is out and faces you, you are exposed to the danger of being bitten. If a horse has his back toward you, you may be kicked.

In calling one to come the Westerner uses his right hand with the palm up, while the Japanese puts his palm down. The former moves his hand upward with only the first finger open, while the Japanese moves his hand downward with all five fingers open.

The Western ghost has a body which gets bigger at the bottom, but in the Japanese ghost, the lower portion gets thinner and thinner until it disappears. He cries 'Urameshi', meaning 'I curse you,' a very ill-tempered expression. Western ghosts are more optimistic and not so revengeful. They speak quite eloquently as if still living in this world. Japanese ghosts are not so eloquent: the only words they sputter are 'Urameshi', as if they have nothing to do in the other world but curse the ones they have left behind.

When a Japanese calls on a friend on buiness he does not go straight to the point, but speaks of weather, climate, and other unimportant matters, and finally comes to the business. The Westerner does not use up unnecessarily the time of the host by chatting about nothing. He comes to the point at once, and only after the business talk is finished, does he speak of other less important things, if time can be spared. The Japanese custom comes from the idea that it is rather selfish to talk business first. This is especially the case when a man wants to ask a favour because on such an occasion he must appeal to his host's generosity and naturally he hesitates or pretends to hesitate to come to the point at once.

In chastising a child a European spanks his bottom (the child's bottom I mean, of course), but a Japanese rap the child on the head. Well, spanking the bottom is less harmful than rapping the head. The Japanese, however, is short-tempered and does not take the trouble of turning the child over, but takes a short-cut and strikes the head, which is the part situated nearest. The Japanese child is, however, very dexterous at escaping such attacks. In nine cases out of ten he makes his escape narrowly and comes back home late at night when his father's anger has subsided and he is beginning to be missed.

The Japanese is very quick to get angry, but also very quick to forgive. In this respect Bryan's Arbitration Treaty, by which all wars were to be postponed a year, would be most efficacious with the Japanese nation.

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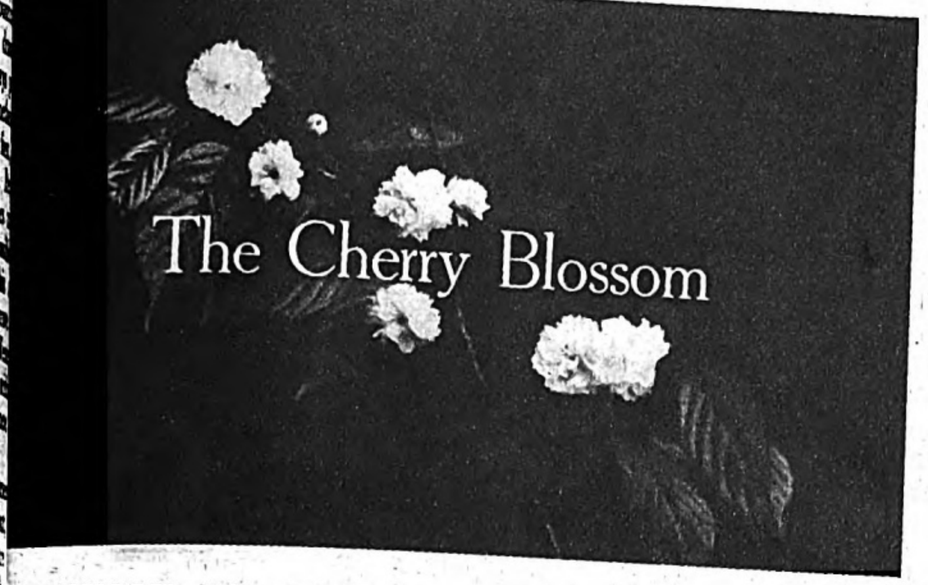


Its Many Varieties and Its Place in Japanese Life

By Manabu Miyoshi, D. Sc.,
Emeritus Professor, the
Tokyo Imperial University

HISTORY OF CHERRY APPRECIATION

ANSWERING the question, "Why does Japan abound in cherry es, especially in cherry trees that bear rgeous flowers?," we must say that causes and origins are far to seek. t it is evidently attributable to the g history of the cherry being ap- ciated by the Japanese people its richness in kinds, the more erior of which have survived to s day through the long centuries, t it is given a unique and partic- rly prominent place among the ndant flowering plants in this untry.

The most common of the Japanese erry trees is the mountain cherry, unus mutabilis, which comes to om in spring when people are aged in pleasure-making. The t that it blooms in this pleasure- king season has, no doubt, made all the more attractive to the Jap- se people, who value it most hly for flower viewing parties. ancient times when the Imperial ace was at Naniwazu (now Osaka), ga (now Otsu), and Nara, the untain cherry, the only common erry of those times, used to be planted r the Palace.

The origin of the uble blossomed erry tree is little own, but it seems have existed as ly as the Nara iod (710-783). t is, however, in sixth year of nkyu (1195) that was first put into records.

That Kyoto is cially rich in the erry tree is ex- lined by these torical events: Emperor Kammu ablished Kyoto as Imperial capital 794, where the erry tree was then nted in abundance in the gardens of rt nobles, temples and shrines; l later during the Hogen period 56-1158) great numbers of trees re transplanted to Kyoto from shino, after which the cultivation young plants came into vogue. ese cherry trees thus cultivated cessfully outlived the fire of civil rs which shook Kyoto from time time.

After the Tokugawa Government s founded in Yedo (now Tokyo) 1602, the art of gardening was ch improved and the study of erry cultivation went on. As a ult the garden varieties of the erry grew remarkably in number o that most of the garden varieties w existing had their origin in those ys. Then the garden varieties a- ounted to twenty or thirty according the records of the period Empo d Genroku (1673-1703). It is more oniahing to note that in the eighth r of Horeki (1758) was published book by Gentatsu Matsuoka con- ning illustrations and explanations sixty-nine different cherries. In Bunka period (1804-1817) an um of cherry blossoms, in which 234 garden varieties and wild cherries are illustrated, was compiled by Nagaaki Ichihashi, a feudal lord known for his love of learning.

The study of the cherry tree thus went forward during the years from Kansei to Bunsei and showed little falling off even in the Tempo period (1830-1843) when a general cultural stagnation came about. But when the Meiji Era (1868-1912) had started after the Restoration, considerable changes were made in the residences of feudal lords who were then thrown out of power, not a few cherry trees attached to them being lost. It is, therefore, thanks to a number of cherry lovers that the more superior garden varieties of the tree have been preserved to this day.

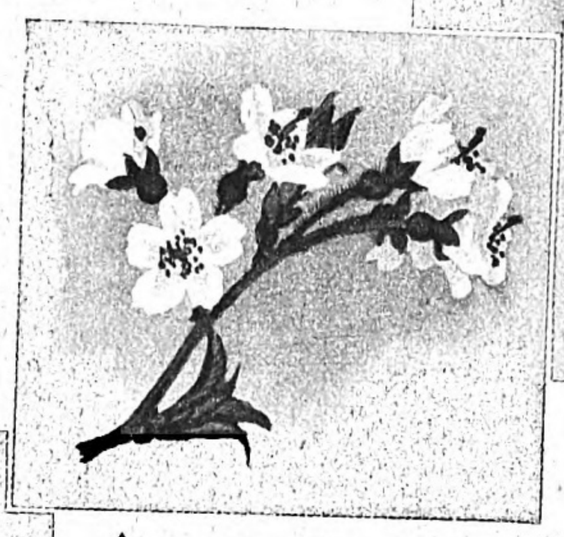
In short the district of Kinki, headed by Yoshino, furnished the source of extensive developments for the Japanese cherry tree; mostly in Kyoto, the old capital in this district, was carried out the work of connoisseurs in the grades of cherry trees till the middle of the Tokugawa period (1602-1867). But after the Kansei era (1789-1800), the center for the study of the cherry blossom gradually shifted to Yedo, where the collection of species and varieties was vigorously pursued. Attention is called to the fact that it is highly suggestive for a comprehension of the people of Japan to learn how the Japanese cherry blossom was primarily cultivated in and about the Imperial palace. Between the middle and the end of the Tokugawa period emphasis was put on some remarkable garden varieties of the cherry tree by enthusiasts, who were interested in the production of peculiar forms of garden plants in general.

The viewing of cherry blossoms in spring makes an annual event in the life of Japanese. The first cherry viewing party ever recorded was in the third year of Konin (812), when the Emperor Saga reigned. Afterwards it became popular with all classes of people. Nowadays the appreciation and protection of cherry blossoms is in large measure due to the work of the Cherry Tree Society, first sponsored by Marquis Yorimichi Tokugawa in 1912. The members of this society are engaged in the study of the cherry from the scientific and literary points of view and publish the results of their study in an organ called "The Cherry."

As is widely known, the cherry tree and its blossom have very often furnished the inspiration for literature and the fine arts in this country. They usually stand for the Japanese people as symbols of a virtue made up of brilliancy and fairness. In feudal ages this virtue was essential to Japanese chivalry, in which warriors were ambitious to act on it and especially to die as nobly and gracefully as they thought the cherry blossom falls from the branch. The following old verse expresses this feeling clearly:

Should any one ask what is the spirit of Japan,
To him I would show the mountain cherry blossoms
Glittering in the morning sun.

Somelyoshino (Somei Cherry)



Shirohigan (Equinox Cherry)

Shiroshidare (Weeping Cherry)

Fugenzo (Domestic Cherry)

Shirakumo-zakura (Mountain Cherry)

Amanogawa (Domestic Cherry)

JAPAN, THE CENTER OF CHERRY DISTRIBUTION

The cherry tree is most widely distributed in the temperate zone of the northern hemisphere. It has recently become known that territories from the south-east of the Himalayas to the south-west of China also have cherry trees. Besides, they exist in a territory extending along the river Amur, the Kurile islands, Saghalien and Formosa. But Japan surpasses all other countries in the variety and the gorgeousness of her cherry blossoms, really being the center of cherry distribution of the world.

THE JAPANESE CHERRY TREES

There are many different species of cherry blossoms, the most gorgeous of them existing in Japan. Those growing in Japan may be divided into more than ten conspicuous species, and of these the most common and beautiful are "yama-zakura" (the mountain cherry), "higan-zakura" (the equinox cherry), "shidare-zakura" (the weeping cherry), "sato-zakura" (the domestic cherry) and "somei-yoshino" (the somei cherry).

The Mountain Cherry There are white and pink mountain cherries, the former of which, Prunus mutabilis, is widely distributed in the mountain districts of the main island of Japan. It is usually a big tree with grey and brown bark and puts forth white blossoms. It is characteristic of this tree that when its blossoms bloom, it also puts forth its young leaves. These leaves vary in tinge, being classified as red, brown, yellow and green. The petioles are either smooth or hairy. The blossoms grow clustered or scattered, and the petals are oval or round and have many or a few cuts at the tip. Usually the petals number five but very rarely six or seven. Thus the mountain cherry differs from other cherries in the great variety it shows.

The pink mountain cherry (Prunus sachalinensis) is found throughout the middle and the northern parts of Japan, including Hokkaido, the Kurile islands, Saghalien, and also along the river Amur. The trees on Lake Chuzenji, Nikko, which produce splendid flowers about May, are representative. The tree grows large and has a bark of deep brown. But the remarkable characteristics are its pink blossoms, reddish brown young leaves, and sticky bracts and calyxes. There is considerable variety in the dimensions and shade of the blossoms.

The Equinox Cherry The equinox cherry (Prunus æquinoctialis) grows wild in the mountains in Honshu (the main island) and Kyushu, and grows big and lives long. Its young leaves are light green. The blossom is either white or pink and either double or single; the petiole and calyx are hairy, and the calyx is either round or long.

The Weeping Cherry This is an equinox cherry with drooping branches. But while the common equinox cherry grows wild, it is specially cultivated. It has also a variety of blossoms, according to which it is called "shiro-shidare" (Prunus æquinocticalis var. pendula), "beni-shidare" (Prunus æquinocticalis var. pendula f. rosea), or "yae-shidare" (Prunus æquinocticalis var. pendula f. plena). In olden times this kind of cherry used to be planted and cultivated in the precincts of temples where it has sometimes survived during the long years to this day.

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The Domestic Cherry This species (Prunus serrulata) is cultivated in gardens and bears single or double blossoms of many different colours —white, pink, deep pink, purplish pink, yellow and green. The flower is big and has a long petiole. The trees of this species that bear flowers of a strong odour are particularly called fragrant cherries. Most domestic cherries never grow big and straight, but their branches stretch out sideways. Only a limited number are found growing straight.

Of the domestic cherry there are many cultivated varieties with gorgeous flowers, the more splendid of which have each a popular name. The more important of these popular names are Sumizome, Usuzumi, Shirotae, Ojochin, Hata-zakura, Botan-zakura, Shirayuki, Gijo, Murasaki-zakura, Kurumagaishi, Horinji, Yokihi, Choshu-Hizakura, Bendono, Yaeake-bono, Yedo, Shogetsu, Hosokawanioi, Takinioi, Kwanzan, Fugenzo, Ichiyo, Ukon-zakura, Gyoiko, Kiku-zakura, Amanokawa and Itokukuri.

The Somei Cherry Since the Meiji Restoration, this species (Prunus yedoensis) has been so widely planted in this country that it is now found everywhere. Its blossoms are pink while in bud and turn white when fully out. The characteristics are that the tree blooms leafless, that it grows and dies more rapidly than other cherry trees, that the bark is easily injured and that its petioles are densely hairy.

In addition to the species above mentioned, there are such species as Prunus incisa, or "Fuji-zakura"; Prunus campanulata, or "Hikan-zakura"; Prunus apelata, or "Choji-zakura"; Prunus kurilensis, or "Chishima-zakura"; and Prunus nipponica, or "Takane-zakura". But the flowers they bear are much inferior in beauty to those of the other kinds. The Fuji-zakura derives its name from Mt. Fuji, at the foot of which it is found in abundance. It is also found growing wild in some other mountains. The plant is a shrub of small blossoms, white or pink in colour, and with hairy petioles, and is often cultivated as a potted plant. The Hikan-zakura is different from the "Kan-zakura" or winter cherry. Originally it grew wild in Mt. Ari, one of the highest peaks in Formosa, first being transplanted to Kagoshima in the Tokugawa period, and later raised in Yedo. In a warm climate it blooms in winter. The flowers are deep red, while the young leaves are green. The Choji-zakura grows in the north-eastern districts of Japan and its blossoms are shaped like pipes. The Chishima-zakura grows wild in Chishima or the Kurile islands, being a shrub bearing small flowers. The Takane-zakura is found in high mountains and has small white flowers.

SHOW-PLACES FOR CHERRIES

Famous spots for cherry blossoms are numerous in all parts of the country. This is because cherry viewing in spring is an important pastime of the Japanese people, who are accustomed to make excursions to places planted with cherries. Of these spots, we here introduce those of historical fame, those rich in species and botanically important, and those favoured with natural beauty.

Mt. Yoshino—The mountain is located in the prefecture of Nara and is only a short distance from the two big western cities, Osaka and Kyoto. It is the most representative resort for cherry viewing and also historical interest. The trees found here are all white mountain cherries, being the finest trees of this kind growing in western Japan. On the hillsides a few miles up from the foot, there are several spots with abundant blossoms; of which the spot called "Hitome-sembon", the word meaning a thousand trees at a glance, offers the finest view of the flowers.

Sakuragawa—The place is situated to the north of Tokyo in the prefecture of Ibaraki, and is a popular spot below, where pleasure-seekers from Tokyo and Yokohama crowd in the spring. It is an hour's ride by tram car from Tokyo.

Kamagatani—Located in the prefecture of Gifu, to the north of Nagoya, it has been renowned since the feudal ages. The trees growing there are the white mountain and the equinox cherries.

Arashiyama—This beautiful spot is in suburbs of Kyoto, where numbers of white mountain cherries first transplanted from Mt. Yoshimo flourish with others growing wild. The clear waters of the Hodzu and the fresh green of the hills form a back-ground that produce scene of great beauty. It is a popular pleasure resort for the people of Kyoto, Osaka and Kobe.

Tsutsujigaoka—This place is in the city of Sendai, and the trees were first planted by Tsunamura Date, the then lord of the province, during the Genroku period (1691-1702). A few equinox and weeping cherries then planted still live. They are now gigantic trees and make the spot widely known.

Kisogawa-Zutsumi—The spot is noted for an avenue of equinox and weeping cherries extending four miles along the banks of the River Kiso, in the prefecture of Aichi. The trees are still young, having been first planted in 1885, but in the spring the spot is popular for excursions with the people of Nagoya.

Arakawa-Zutsumi—Along the bank of the Arakawa, situated in the north outskirts of Tokyo, seventy-eight varieties of domestic cherries were planted in great numbers in 1886 when the embankment was completed. Bearing blossoms varied in colour and shape, the trees there are as popular with Tokyo people as Koganei.

Omuro—This is a spot in the precincts

Crowds Out to Enjoy the Cherry Blossoms at the Ueno Zoo, Tokyo

Cherry Blossoms at Koganei, Near Tokyo

Koganei—On the west outskirts of Tokyo, in the flats of Musashi, is located Koganei, the only spot in the neighbourhood having white mountain cherries. In 1736 white mountain cherries were transplanted from Mt. Yoshino and Sakuragawa to the place, where they grow on the banks of reservoirs, extending three miles. The flowers are all the more splendid on account of the fresh and clear water

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Omuro—This is a spot in the precincts of Ninnaji Temple, in the suburbs of Kyoto, where several garden varieties of the domestic cherry with clustered dwarf stems have earned a reputation for themselves since the middle of the Tokugawa period.

Kumagai-Zutsumi—The spot is located in the prefecture of Saitama, near Kumagai Station. It is famous for its Somei cherries, which were first planted in 1883.

Every spot enumerated above is important for the study of the cherry

Illustration on Opposite Page

Clouds of Cherry Blossoms Floating Lightly Round the Hanging Veranda of Kiyomizu Temple, Kyoto

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ected by law as a place of natural monuments.

BLE CHERRY TREES

shall mention a few of trees of nation-wide fame, of a rare kind or grow in ue way.

Yae-Zakura (Prunus —This cherry existing in cts of Chisokuin Temple, rs beautiful double pink the petioles of which are

Fudan-Zakura (Prunus f. semperflorens)—This ura", the name of which r-flowering cherry, stands cincts of Koyasu Kannon Shiroko-cho, Miye pre- t has been noted since the period for the flowers roughout the year and its ch never fall in winter.

do-Zakura (Prunus he-—This tree is a rare spe- e mountain cherry growing llage of Kawai, Ibi-gun, cture. It is different from ies in the fact that it puts e, double and reblooming n different branches.

ura (Prunus mutabilis ra)—This tree, growing in s of Isora Shrine, Ibomizu, n, Osaka prefecture, is ossomed mountain cherry, luces flowers with more y petals. Being an old considerably injured but endidly every spring.

Juzukake-Zakura (Pru- ulata f.)—This is a erry having double blos- n very long petioles, the place where it grows ncts of Daigoji Temple,

ta Kambara-gun, Niigata prefecture, nnected with Shinran Shonin, the under of the Buddhist sect called do.

Ishiwari-Zakura (Prunus aequi- ctialis)—This tree, gowing from crack in a granite stone in the ounds of a law court in Morioka, s acquired the name of "Ishiwari". is a kind of white equinox cherry. The above named cherries are not ly notable but are specially protected law. Below are mentioned some erry trees notable for size and height this country:

Yamataka Jindai-zakura (white equinox cherry) In Shintomi-mura, Yamanashi prefecture.
The trunk measures 10.6 metres round.

Neodani Usuzumi-zakura (white equinox cherry) In Neo-mura, Gifu prefecture.
This is the next biggest in Japan, the tree named above being first.

Isazawa Kubo-zakura (white equinox cherry) In Isazawa-mura, Yamanashi prefecture.
The trunk measures 6 metres round.

Kariyado Geba-zakura (white mountain cherry) In Shiraito-mura, Shizuoka prefecture.
The trunk measures 8.5 metres round.

Miharu Taki-zakura (red weeping cherry) In Nakago-mura, Fukushima prefecture.
The trunk measures 9.5 metres round.

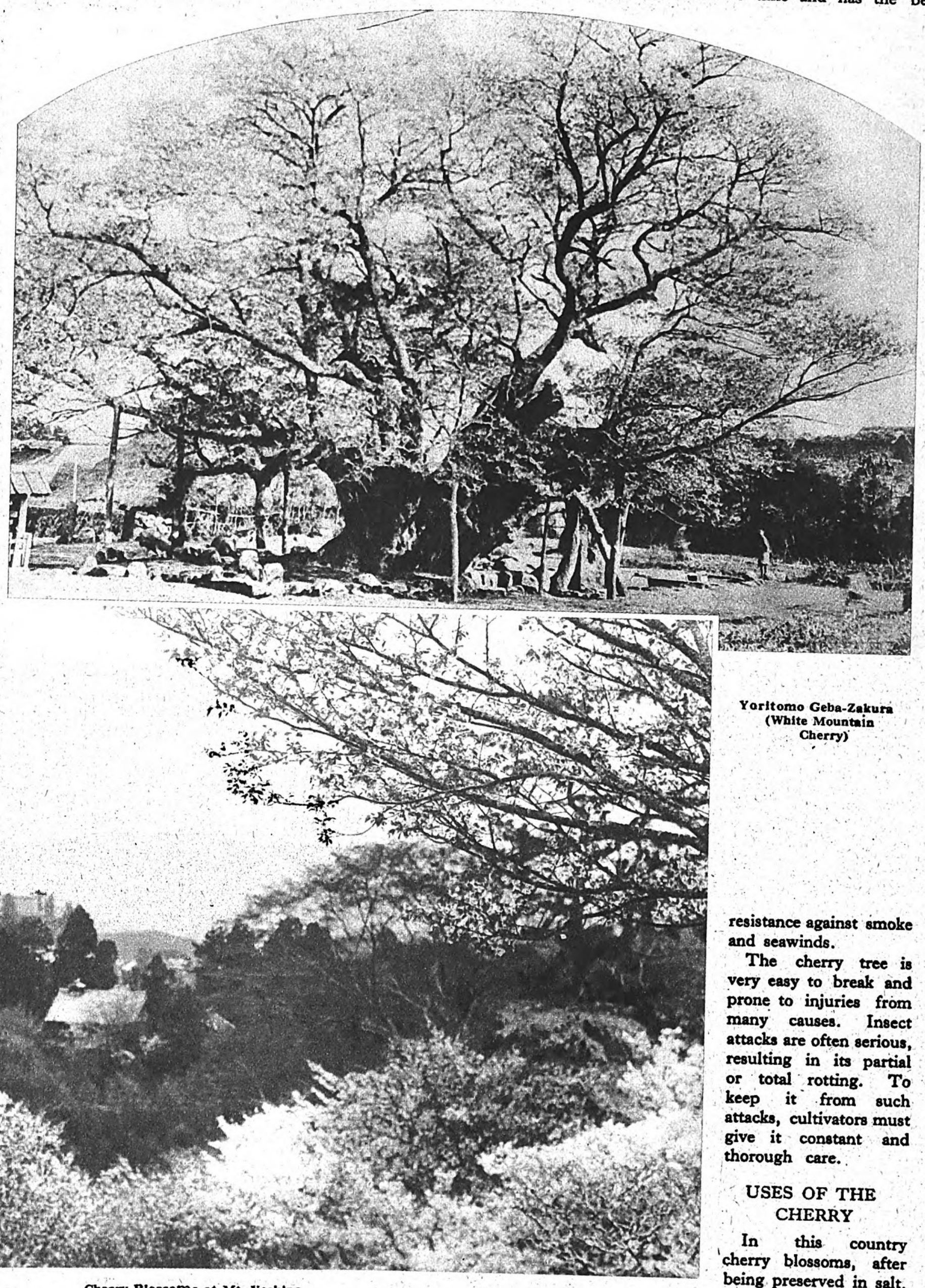
Ishido Kaba-zakura (Prunus media) In Ishido-mura, Saitama prefecture.
Four big trunks growing from the ground with a total circumference of 11 metres.

CULTIVATION OF THE CHERRY

Soft soil in which water drains off excellently is primarily important for cherry cultivation. The domestic cherry and other like garden species are cultivated by means of grafting, for which the mountain cherry is selected in most cases for stock. In planting cherries care must be taken to leave ample space between trees so that they may be free to spread their branches widely, for any injury, such as cuts and breaks, is very likely to result in the wholesale corruption of the tree. When the tree gets injured on one of the major branches or the trunk, the rotten part should be removed and creosote applied over the cut. It must also be seen to that any hole in the tree is filled with cement.

Cherry planting requires a wise choice of land according to the species: hillsides with bushes growing on them are best for the mountain cherry; the precincts of a temple or a park suit the equinox or weeping cherry; and a garden, park or the embankment of a river furnishes a spectacular place for the display of the blossoms of the domestic or the somei cherry. For a smoky place or a spot near the seashore is to be recommended the Oshima cherry, a kind of mountain cherry, which puts forth white fragrant flowers and light green leaves at the same time and has the best resistance against smoke and seawinds.

The cherry tree is very easy to break and prone to injuries from many causes. Insect attacks are often serious, resulting in its partial or total rotting. To keep it from such attacks, cultivators must give it constant and thorough care.



Yoritomo Geba-Zakura (White Mountain Cherry)

Cherry Blossoms at Mt. Yoshino

USES OF THE CHERRY

In this country cherry blossoms, after being preserved in salt, are steeped in hot water to make a drink. It gives the Japanese a good substitute for tea and is called "Sakurayu". The leaves are used to make a rice cake called "Sakura-mochi," when they have been salted and have acquired a high flavour peculiar to them. Of the very few Japanese species whose fruits are good to eat, the most popular is the mountain cherry. A favorite use of cherries with the Japanese is for brewing an alcoholic drink called "Sakura-zake". The wood is close-grained and makes excellent material for printing blocks and wood-carving.

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WESTERN JAPAN RICH IN NATURAL BEAUTY

NAGASAKI—is trade port and a picture port. In recent years the foreign trade of Nagasaki has not flourished greatly, but with the opening of the tunnel under the Kammon Strait, it will be the terminus of a railway running the full length of Japan and the head of Japan's trade development abroad.

MT. UNZEN—is known for its wonderful view. Unzen has good hotsprings, and is a fine pleasure resort, with golf links, an international Camping Ground, etc.

The mountain can be climbed from Nerihaya and Shimabara, and in recent years a road has been opened for motor cars from Nagasaki. The peaks Yatake, Myoken and Kunimi stand aloft like pictures.

MT. ASO—is in line to become a national park. Thanks to the efforts of the Aso Preservation Society, the mountain can now be climbed from Yachino, Bochu, Akamizu, and Miyachi, of which places Bochu offers the shortest route to the top. It is five miles from Bochu to the summit. There are hotsprings in the neighbourhood. The Aso Shrine is worth visiting.

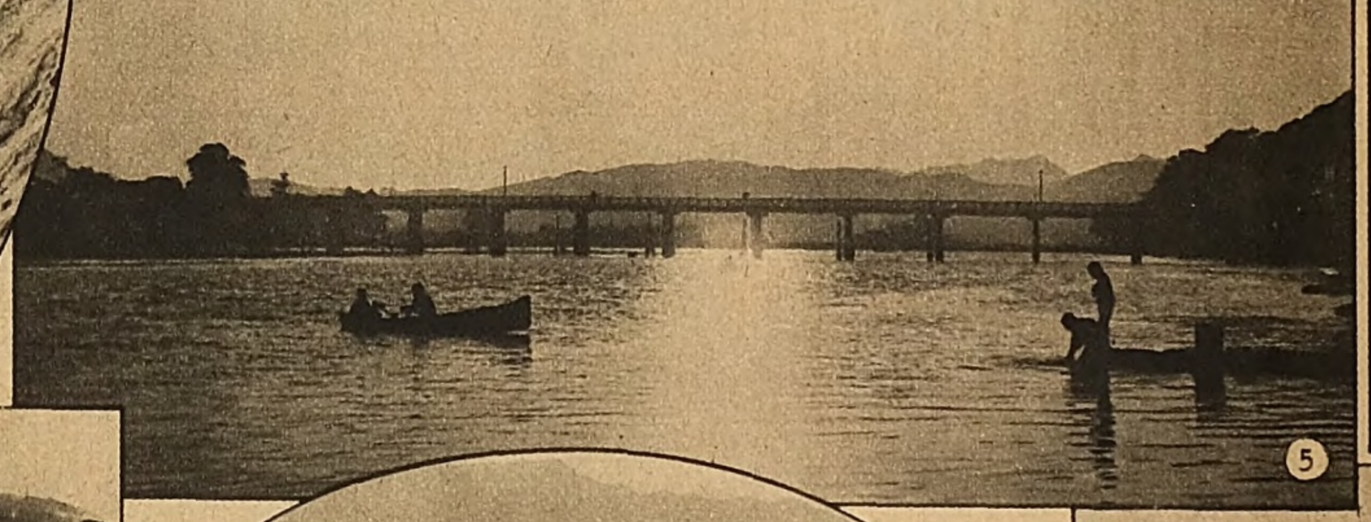
THE MIYAZAKI SHRINE—in the city of Miyazaki, has a solemn beauty.

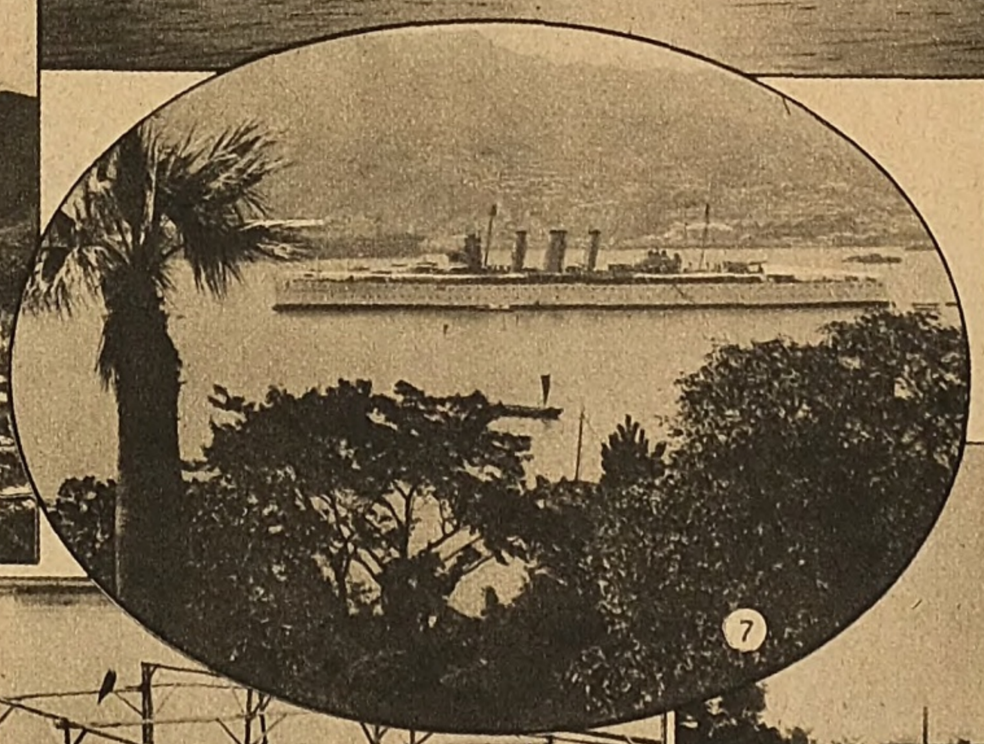
AOJIMA—is one hour and a half distant from Miyazaki. A variety of rare tropical plants grow on this island.

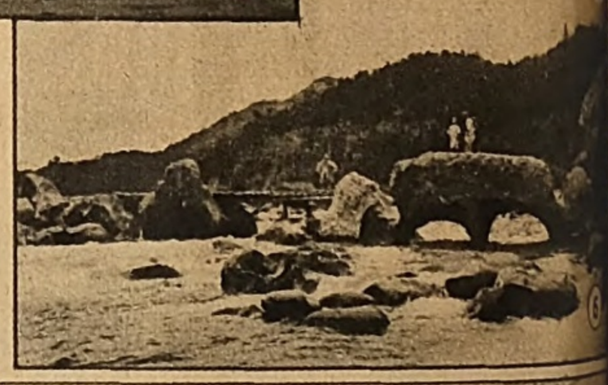
BY TAKING THE NIPPO—Main Line at Kokura one can see a number of places of natural beauty, including Nakatsu, Yabakei, Beppu and Hidabonchi, all too well known to need any detained tion. At Usa s famous Usa Shrine of a unique summ To the South of Golf Course is n construction, to be May next year.

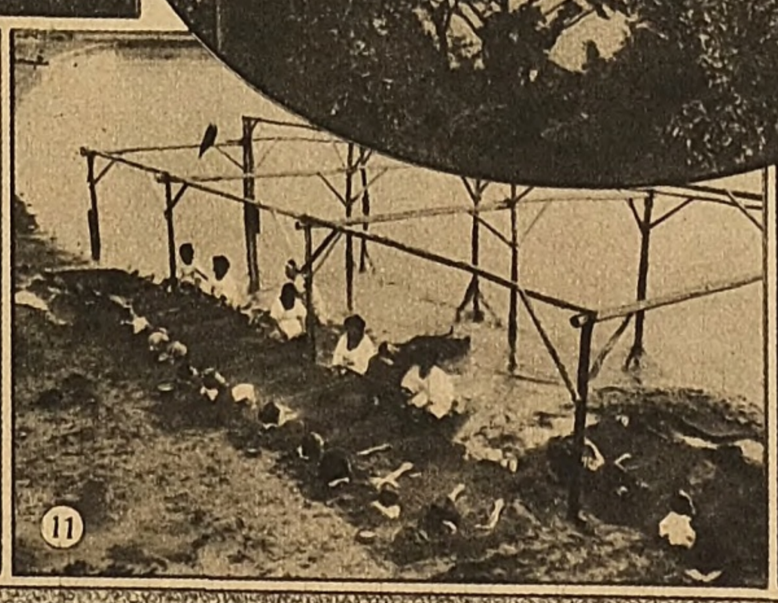
THE SHUHODO IN— Prefecture is a grea grotto. It affords and grotesque natu The marble produc is known for its colours.

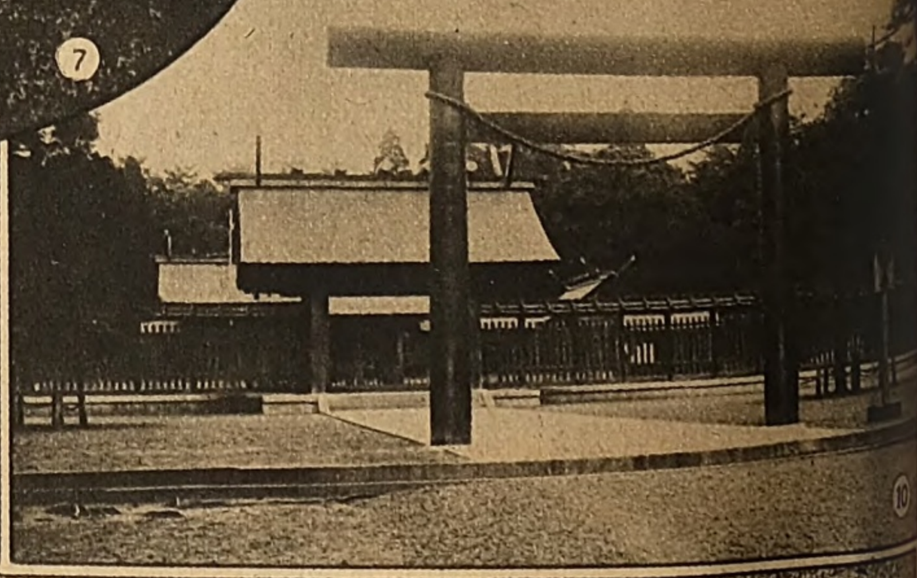
Photos: 1. Mt. Aso Covered with Snow 2. Betel Palms at Aojima 3. Fantastic View of Shuhodo 4. Shuhodo from Inside the Cave 5. A Misty Sea at Hida 6. Inubashiri at Yabakei 7. Port of Nagasaki 8. Mt. Unzen 9. Yatake Golf Links 10. Sanctuary of the Miyazaki Shrine 11. Natural Sand Bath—Bepp











FAMOUS YAMAGUCHI-KEN MARBLES

Every information about marbles will be furnished by the Industrial Bureau at the Yamaguchi Prefectural Government.

AD.

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JAPAN GREEN TEA, AN OLD FAVOURITE, AND THE DISCOVERY OF VITAMIN C

LTHOUGH the tea plant is native to Japan, the custom of tea drinking came from China in about 608 A.D. custom was first adopted by our les and gradually spread to all ses throughout the country, more icularly after the 12th century. 1191, Abbot Yeisai brought a new ety of tea plant from South China at the same time extolled tea as infallible medicine for longevity. development of the tea ceremonial a-no-yu) in the 15th century is nly due to Shuko, who aimed to ibine training in mind culture and al etiquette with the pleasure of socials. His system soon advanced the position of a cult among the urai class, and favorably affected general culture of the time.

ll European navigators and traders reached Japan in the 16th century me associated with tea. At the s of their landing their safe arrival greeted with tea by the feudal lord the place as each ship entered. ard Wickham of the British India pany, wrote from 'Firando' (Hira- under date of June 27th, 1615, to fellow officer, William Eaton, at co to send him "a pot of best w (tea)". The Dutch East India npany, which enjoyed the practical nopoly of our foreign trade at Naga- i for 250 years since 1600, were ways represented in Japan by captains d men of leaders of high character, order to maintain their trade privges under a special permit called Goshuin." Among the staff-officers who came to Deshima, Nagasaki, from time to time, we find Engelbertus Kaempfer, who for the first time gave an authentic account of Japan Tea in his "Amoenitatum Exoticum," 1712; Carl Thunberg and Von Siebold, distinguished physician and naturalist, who were both admirers of Japan green tea as an excellent beverage.

The visit of Commodore Perry in 1853 brought a complete change to the Dutch trade at Nagasaki, and it now was engulfed in a wider commerce with all nations. Townsend Harris, first Ambassador of the United States, arrived in Japan in 1856. He had an epicurean taste for tea and mentions the tea ceremonial frequently in his "Journal," as he was served with tea on various occasions at important diplomatic conferences and banquets. In the early history of Yokohama and Kobe, tea played a most important rôle. The export of tea, until 1883, amounted to more than 10% of our total annual trade. Tea also contributed greatly to the development of ocean traffic in those days, as it was about the only commodity which made up the bulk of any ship's cargo. The first shipment of tea was made to England, but as a large demand soon arose in the United States and Canada, it became necessary to make direct shipments. In 1868, a British barque, the "Brave" was despatched to New York with a full cargo of tea from Yokohama and Kobe.

Direction for Making A Perfect Cup of Japan Green Tea

First warm the pot with hot water.
Put in the pot a teaspoonful of tea for each cup.
Be sure the water is thoroughly boiled and let it cool down for a minute, before pouring it into the teapot.
After three to five minutes, the tea is ready.
Tea, prepared in this way, is the most flagrant and delicious.
Serve it with or without lemon, milk or sugar.

In this familiar Japan Green tea, Dr. Miura and Dr. Suzuki, both eminent authorities on the subject of vitamins, discovered Vitamin C, a precious health giving element, in a percentage far surpassing that found in fresh vegetables and fruits. No vitamin C was found in black tea, coffee or cocoa. Dr. Miura recently announced his standardised method for the correct drawing of tea containing a full amount of vitamin C. According to him, tea should be infused twice with hot water at a temperature of 60°-65° C. In the first infusion two thirds of the vitamin of the original leaf was found present and the remaining one third in the second infusion. Two infusions put together will give the full amount. A distinguished scientist writes "Poor health characterized by certain symptoms may be looked for in those who habitually take too little Vitamin C. The symptoms are: loss of energy, muddy complexion and fleeting pains often mistaken for rheumatism." Aside from its delicious beverage qualities, Japan green tea is now known to be rich in Vitamin C—a safeguard against such troubles.

Japan produces roughly 100 million pounds of tea, of which more than three quarters is being used at home. The United States began to consume Japan green tea after the opening of Yokohama, in 1859, and today some 18 million pounds are used there. Canada consumes about 3 million pounds. Russia also takes about 3 million pounds. Russia started to use Japan tea only a few years ago but the trade with that country is growing steadily.

"Tea Plantation in Shizuoka Prefecture."

The Japan Central Tea Association, Tokyo.

The Shizuoka-ken Tea Association, Shizuoka.

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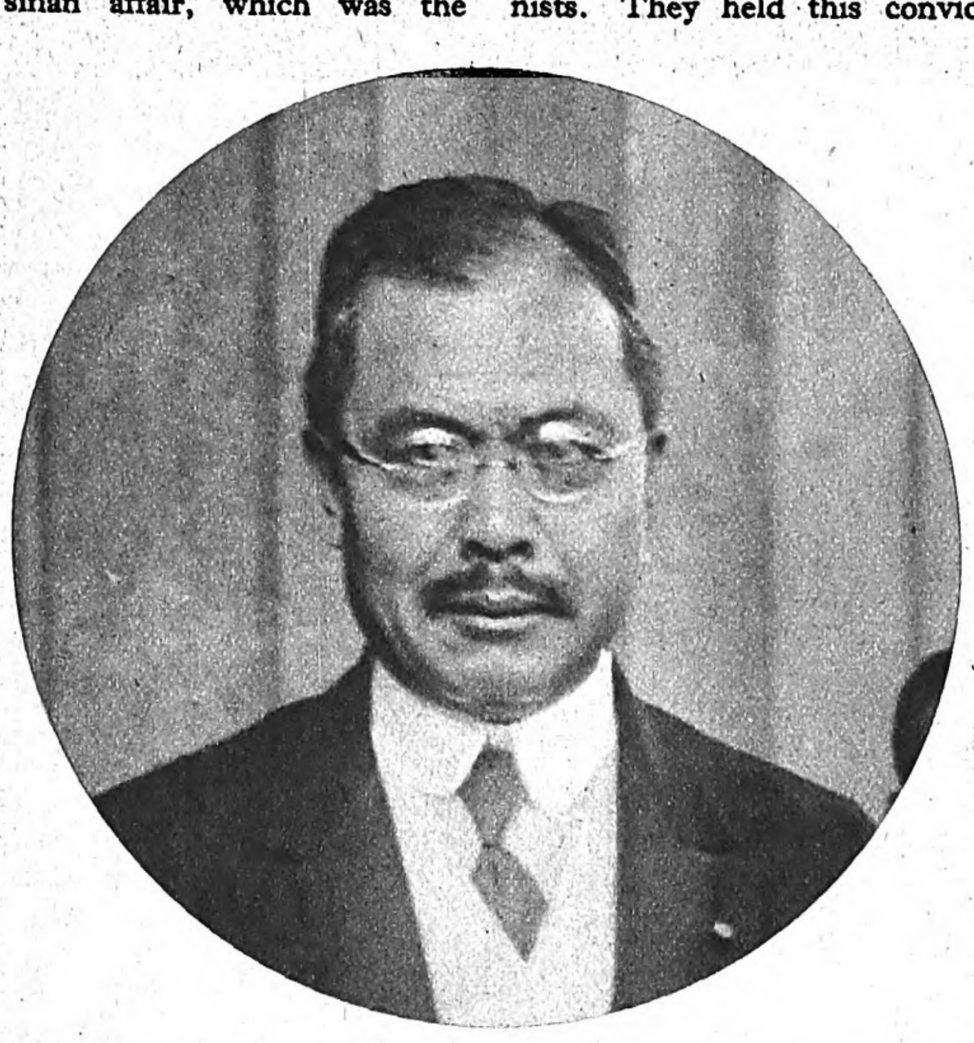
Recent Development of Japan's Policy Toward China

IN the previous number of "Present-Day Japan" we discussed Japan's policy toward China. Among other things we hoped that the Tanaka Cabinet would assume a more liberal policy toward China. Since Minister Yoshizawa went to China with new government instructions in January this year, the attitude of the Tanaka Cabinet has changed as we hoped and expected. This changed policy had an instantaneous effect. The Tsinan affair, which was the



Kijuro Shidehara, Foreign Minister of Japan

inevitable result of the Tanaka Cabinet's policy in China, was amicably solved on March 28. The Nanking affair, which occurred on March 24, 1927, and the affair connected with the mob's raid on the Japanese settlements at Hankow on April 3, the same year, were also settled. The revision of the Japanese-Chinese commercial treaty which was due two years and a half ago was negotiated at the first conference, fixed for May 2nd.

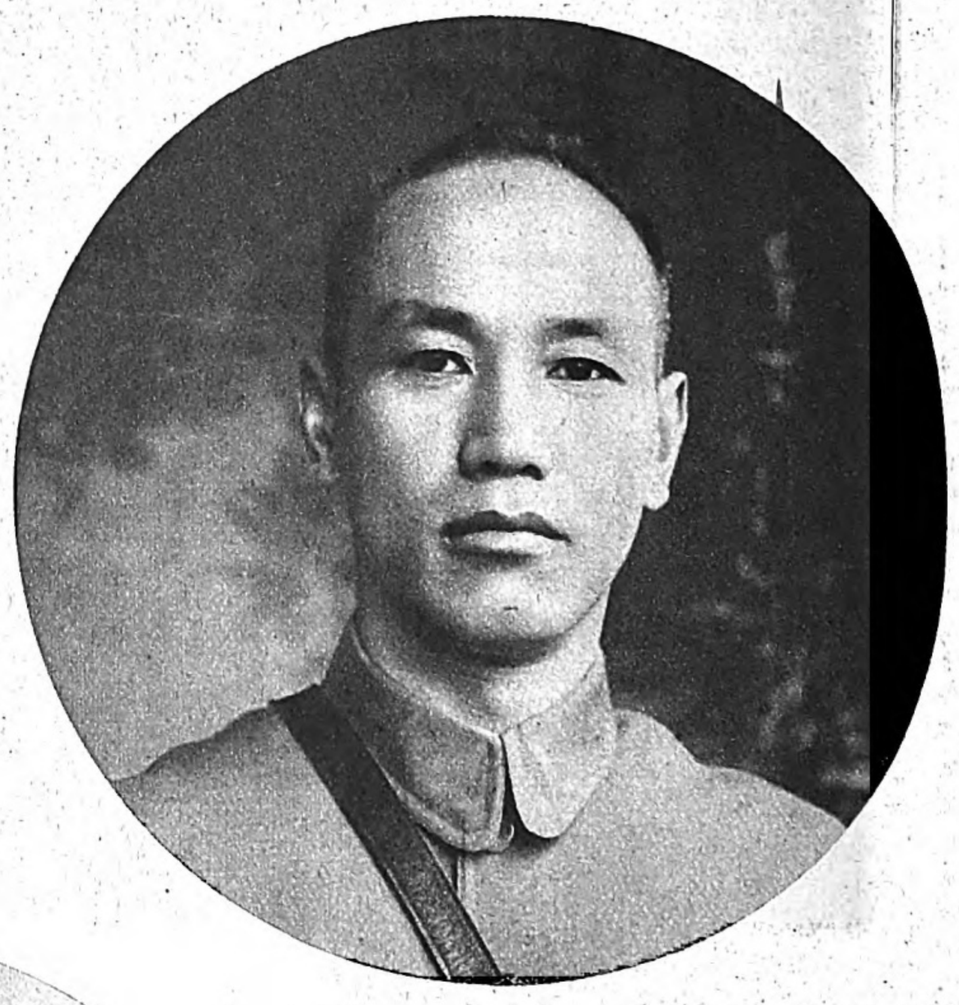
The Tanaka Cabinet, however, collapsed at the end of June. The chief reason given for the Cabinet's resignation is the failure in its policy toward China, despite the fact that its policy had begun to change since January, and had returned to the normal diplomatic course. It has been generally recognized that the Tanaka Cabinet's policy in China has achieved nothing; on the contrary it has implanted hostility toward Japan throughout China. It is believed with some reason that such a diplomatic blunder was due to the failure on the part of Baron Tanaka and his colleagues to judge the political current of the new Chinese Republic. Since the Government was wrong in their conception of new China, it is quite natural that the execution of their policy in China should be met with obstacles, and led to an ultimate failure. We have no space to explain the details of the Government blunders, and therefore content ourselves with giving one notable example. The Tanaka Cabinet, which detested the communistic movement, hastily concluded that all the national movements in China were smeared with red. On this account, the Cabinet could not understand what important significance must be attached to the mission of the new National Government which was established at Nanking by Chiang Kai-shih and his party in April, 1927, against the communistic government at Hankow. The Japanese high authorities of the time hastily concluded that all the nationalistic movements in China were identical with the red propagandists' movements and they regarded even Chiang Kai-shih, who demanded the expulsion of all communists, as belonging to the extreme left of the Nationalists who might at any moment shake hands with the communists. They held this conviction so firmly that they tried to suppress every domestic opposition movement carried on by those who entertained quite different opinions about the Chinese National Government.

It took about eighteen months for them to rectify their mistakes by recognizing the National Government. As a matter of fact, the Nanking Government not only had no connection whatever with the Red Propaganda movement, but they rose against the communists in China, their mission being to drive out of the land the Russian communistic influence.

The Japanese Government failed to see that the Nanking Government, which was organised almost simultaneously with the Tanaka Cabinet, was destined to be the central force in new China. The Japanese Government was inclined to regard the Nanking Government as lightly as possible as the centre of the unification of China. On the contrary they saw the danger of destructive power of the Nationalists, which prevented them from approaching the Nationalists for an understanding. When there was a fear of colliding with the new government, the Japanese authorities turned a cold face to it, as if they were not concerned with its existence. They perhaps thought that in this way Japan could solidify her position in China, and check the movement of the communists.

This misconception of the real condition in China on the part of the Japanese authorities was responsible for many unhappy incidents which took place in 1927-8. Japan twice despatched troops to Shantung Province against the will of the Nanking Government, bringing on an armed collision with the Chinese troops at Tsinan in May, 1928. While the United States and Great Britain soon correctly perceived the anti-communsintic nature of the Nanking Government under Chiang Kai-shih and his party and endeavoured to approach them, the Tanaka Government continued to assume a policy diametrically opposed.

As regards the death of Chang Tso-lin, a doubt naturally arises why the Japanese guards of the line at the point where the explosion took place so easily accepted the request of the Chinese authorities and suspended temporarily the right of guarding the line, thus giving an opportunity for the occurrence of the incident. This was the point with which the Opposition attacked the government in the last session of the Diet. As it was, the incident ultimately caused the collapse of the Tanaka Cabinet. This was attributable to the fact that the mistaken view of China held by the Tanaka Cabinet created an atmosphere which quite disturbed the right judgement of the situation by Japanese soldiers and civilians in Manchuria. We asserted in the previous number of "Present-Day Japan" that the Tanaka Cabinet should change its attitude toward China, and adopt a more liberal policy, so that the anti-Japanese atmosphere might be cleared away. At the last moment it abruptly changed its policy. It despatched Minister Yoshizawa to Nanking, and after solving a number of pending problems, recognized the Nanking Government as the *de facto* central government. But it was too late in discovering the folly of its policy. The Tanaka Cabinet was succeeded by the Minseito Cabinet, Baron Shidehara taking the portfolio of Foreign Affairs. What policy will the new Cabinet take toward China? To solve this question, it is necessary to understand the so-called Shidehara diplomacy which was the object



Chiang Kai-shih, President of the Chinese Republic

of severe criticism by the Seiyukai Party two years ago when the party was in the opposition; it is also necessary to consider how Baron Shidehara is going to execute the four principles of his policy. In the meantime we must not forget the important lesson taught by the Tanaka Cabinet. The diplomatic failure of the cabinet during the past two years has been too expensive for a test of policy. The Tanaka Cabinet put to test its so-called positive policy toward China by which it reaped nothing but the extreme animosity of the Chinese nation toward the Japanese, thus augmenting the gloomy atmosphere already existing between the two nations. This object lesson obtained at the highest possible cost might not be all a loss if it should serve as a future warning to the soldier-statesmen. In this sense alone the existence of the Tanaka Cabinet for two years may be excused. The object less

Dr. C. T. Wang, Foreign Minister of the Chinese Republic

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s nothing but the fact that when he Japanese diplomacy is dominated y amateur diplomats such as soldiers, overnment merchants, etc., while he opinions of professional diplomats are ignored, not only are no good esults obtainable, but it often auses very serious diplomatic failures. When, on the other hand, the opinion f the professional diplomats and hat of the amateurs agreed and vas supported by the majority of he nation, Japan's diplomacy proved ery successful. This fact is amply roved by the history of Japan's iplomacy since the beginning of

Leaders in the New Government of China. From left to right: Tai Chi-tao, Feng Yu-hsiang, Yen Hsi-shan, Chiang Kai-shih and Wu Chi-hui

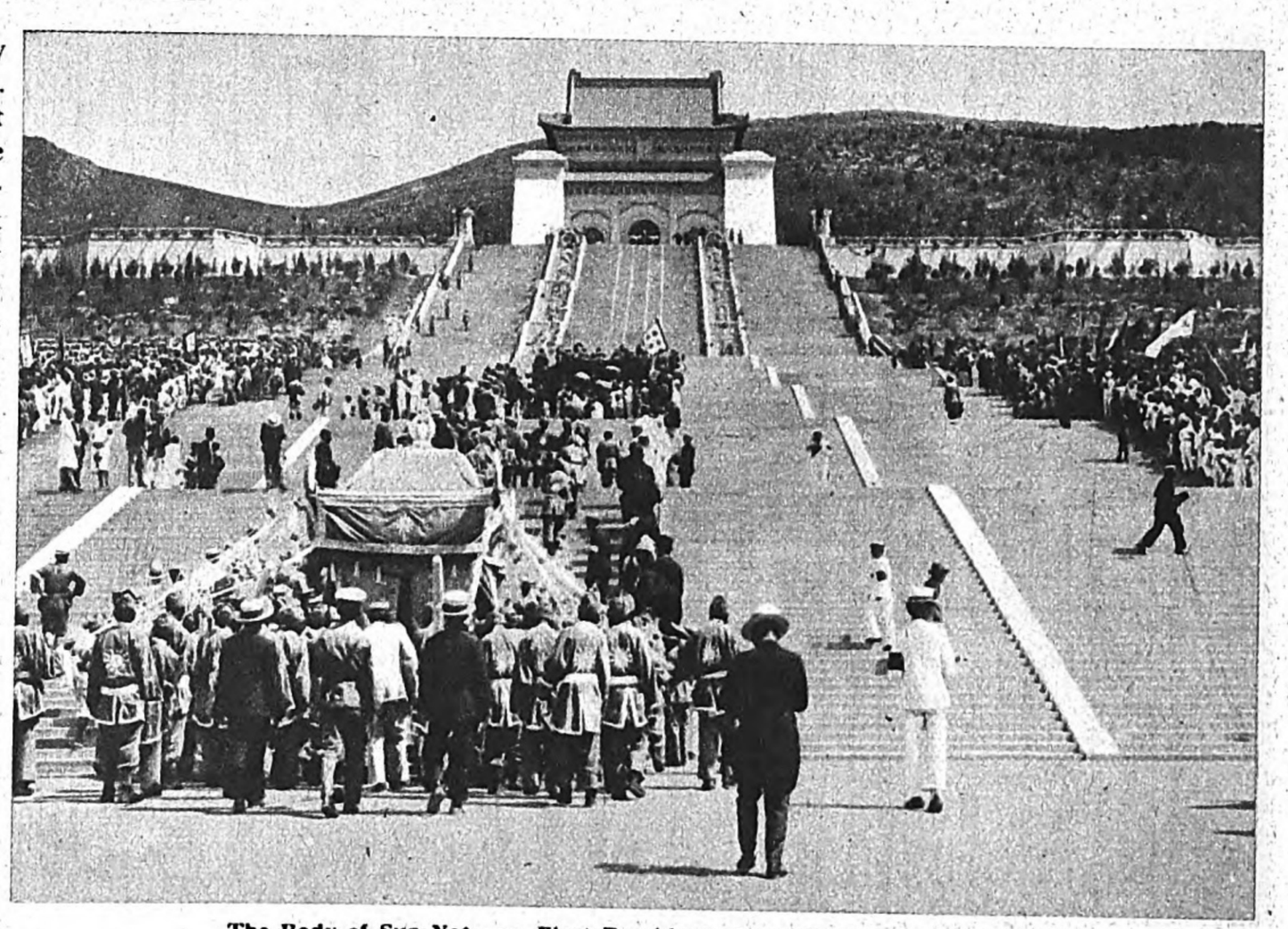
e Meiji Era. One of the most otable diplomatic failures was the ending of troops to Siberia. This lunder was committed because no espect was payed to public opinion r to the opinion of professional dipmats. The government blindly folowed the advice of a certain privileged lass and a portion of the governent merchants. And again, the faous twenty-one demands were orinally made for peaceful purposes, hich aimed at the harmonisation f the interests of the two nations. ut the demands incurred great criicism, resulting in harmful conseuences to the international fame of apan. It is an open secret that ount Kato, Minister of Foreign ffairs at the time, under the pressure f the soldiers, added some conditions o the twenty-one demands against is will. That is why the demands ere so unpopular.

When General Baron Tanaka beame Prime Minister, and Foreign inister *ad interim* it was at first xpected that he could control the pinions of the soldier class so hat Japan's diplomacy might be unied and under his protection the rofessional diplomats could be given mple room for their diplomatic activty. This expectation was betrayed ecause his diplomacy was nothing ut a soldier's diplomacy, the Forign Office being simply a cat's paw. The Premier and his colleagues did ot hesitate to collide with the natonal movement of the Chinese nation, probably thinking that thereby they could enhance the national interests of the Japanese nation.

The Japanese policy toward China was thus led by blind impulses, and by the time the Tanaka Cabinet was disillusioned and made an abrupt about-face at the beginning of the year, the United States had already contracted a new treaty with the new Chinese Government and Great Britain, too, had taken the same steps as America, for she did not err in her judgement of the Nanking Government, as she did two years ago when the Nanking Government separated from the Communist Government.

The above fact may explain why Baron Shidehara, Minister of Foreign Affairs, was recieved by the nation with great expectations, and it may show what direction the new Cabinet's policy in China may assume in the future. Of course we cannot tell exactly what visible form Shidehara diplomacy may assume, but we cannot deny the fact that he has been received with great expectations by the majority of the nation as the most fit statesman for improving the relations between the two nations by wiping off the blots on them left by his predecessor. Why is Baron Shidehara so popular? Partly through reaction to his predecessor's blunders, but there must be other more positive reasons.

We are of the opinion that the preliminary condition for the improvement of the relations of the two nations and the continuance of the peaceful atmosphere in the Far East is the existence of relations between Japan and the United States so good and co-operation between them so perfect that China will have no room for executing any mischievous tactics aimed at their separation. The history of the past decade proves the accuracy of this view. It is the same with the policy adopted by Great Britain. Aside from the individualistic character of the British diplomacy, a minute examination shows that her policy toward China has a tendency to harmonize with that of the United States. Then if Japan succeeds in co-operation with the United States, she will also succeed in cooperation with Great Britain. According to past experience, the climax of the Chinese anti-Japanese movement was reached only when China realised that the acquirement of the United States' sympathy would enable her to assume any hostile attitude she liked toward Japan. Baron Shidehara attended the Washington conference in 1921 and has a deep knowledge of and sound opinions about the tripartite relations between the United States, China, and Japan. A diplomat with such broad views must be the best leader of Japanese diplomacy. This is the second reason for his popularity.



The Body of Sun Yat-sen, First President of the Chinese Republic, Being Carried to Its New Resting Place in Nanking

The third reason is that the situation in China has been fundamentally changed and the mistaken policy of the Tanaka Cabinet has been exposed to the general view of the nation since the organization of the new cabinet. Indeed the situation in China has so developed that the blunders of Baron Tanaka have been made quite clear, whereas the views of Baron Shidehara have proved to have been generally correct.

In January, 1927 when the Wu-chang-Hankow Government's communist propaganda policy reached its climax, Baron Shidehara predicted without hesitancy that the communistic movement would never succeed, and that Japan should adhere to a policy of non-interference until the movement should die a natural death. In the Imperial Diet on January 18th Baron Shidehara stated that China has a history of four thousand years and possesses her own culture and that no foreign power can ever succeed in forcing on such an old country her own social system. This statement of Baron Shidehara's was enthusiastically received by the intelligentsia in Japan. Three months after the speech was delivered the Nanking Government was established and became the centre of the anti-communistic movements aimed at the destruction of the political foundation built by the communists. What we must call attention to is the fact that the American policy toward China has changed since the Washington Conference in 1921, and more especially during the past two years. The United States is trying to satisfy the nationalistic aspirations of the Chinese nation by giving all she can afford without pain, but Japan has unfortunately a different standing from that of the United States in China, and feels great hesitancy in giving what the United States did willingly. In the future, on the other hand, Japan will be able to give to China what the United States hesitates to give. For example Japan had reason to hesitate in the customs duties problem, but in regard to the abolition of extraterritoriality, she is not so much troubled as the United States. Thus the inter-relations between the three countries are very delicate and will be greatly affected by Japan's policy. The adjustment of these different standpoints will be effected in the negotiations over the Sino-Japanese commercial treaty. How will Baron Shidehara proceed with this business? On this will depend the success or failure of his diplomacy toward China. Japan is the first power to contract a new treaty with China under the principles of equality, thus serving as a harbinger for the Western powers. Baron Shidehara has a right to expect the co-operation and moral support of the world.

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Dancing in Japan

Ancient Traditions and Modern Tendencies

By Yukichi Kodera

FOLK DANCES

"THE *kagura* is the oldest and purest form of dancing in Japan." Such is the consensus of opinion among Western students of our culture who not infrequently give their opinion on this sacred Shinto dance with a tone of finality, regardless of the fact that it has not been so entirely free from the law of evolution as they imagine. It is true that to this day the *kagura* retains most of its antique, unadulterated nature in small villages far removed from the great centres of modern civilization, while it is equally true that in large cities and towns it shows marked traces of modernization. In short, *kagura* is a comprehensive term for various kinds of dances of ancient origin.

Kagura dancers, as a rule, were not professionals in the bygone days. Performances were given by the gifted members of a village community on every fete day of its guardian deity as an expression of their devotion to the god. The advent of people who make their living as *kagura* entertainers, as in Tokyo, dates back to but a recent past.

The dance has been popular among the dwellers in out-of-the-way places in Japan partly as a religious rite and partly as an amusement. They have to trudge miles to see a show and the hard working folks have neither time nor money to seek such diversion. Under the circumstances, it is natural that country people should give vent to their pent-up desire for amusement by either taking part in or beholding *kagura* dances, though their popularity is on the wane. This once favorite entertainment in the country districts has lost much of its appeal to the villagers because of the universal decline of Shintoism in our country, on the one hand, and the monotony of the music and dancing of the *kagura*, on the other. Still unsophisticated as they are, the younger generation in the country does not warm up to the slow, sober, antiquated pastime and is casting about for some more lively entertainment to take its place. But they have not yet found it.

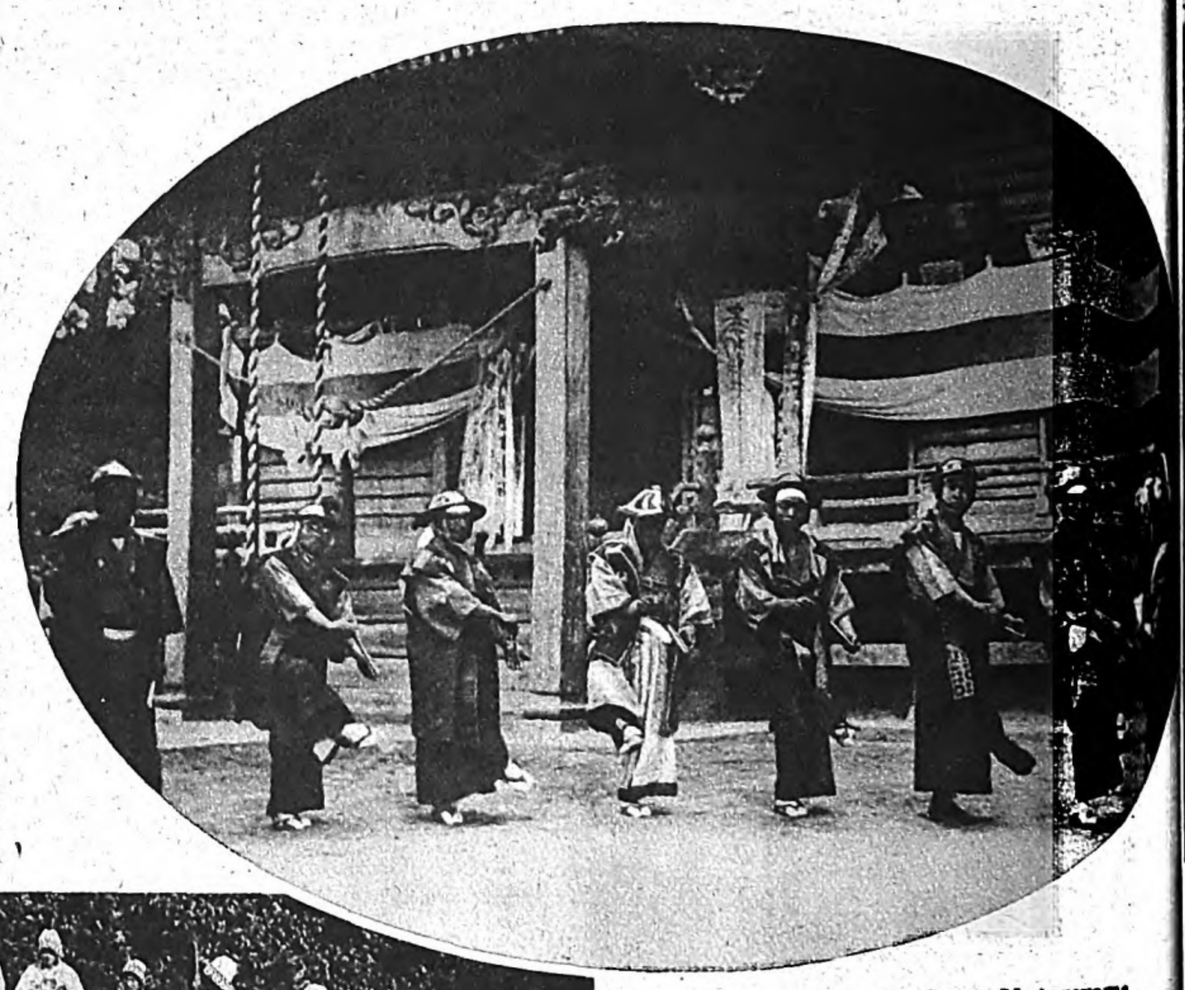
Of rustic dances based on sympathetic magic, which has sprung up from some religious faith or other, there are many: invocations to the gods for bumper crops, timely rainfall, and big hauls of fish invariably find expression in dancing. In mourning for relatives or friends and in rejoicing over rich harvests and heavy catches, our peasants and fisher-folk stage performances to express the respective moods of the occasions. By far the most popular of the dances falling under this category is the "Bon Odori," or the dance of the Feast for the Departed. Country dances of this kind have received but scant encouragement during the last half century. And the threat of the eventual disappearance of this single source of merriment for the vast rural population has recently been met by a group of public-minded men and women who some five years ago started with considerable success a campaign to revive this proletarian amusement. With the twofold aim of keeping up the rich native legacy of olden days and of paving the way for a new achievement both in music and dancing for the rural masses, a big annual concert and dancing festival enlisting nationwide support and participation is held at the Nippon Seinen Kan (the Japanese Young Men's Hall) in Tokyo. The movement has done a great deal for the revival of the sundry folk songs and dances in the country where a rich field keenly awaits creations by gifted composers and dance-creators, who are busy trying to meet the demand.

Daimon Dance of Matsushiro-Cho, Nagano Prefecture

The dancing so widely appreciated by the country people, strange to say, has been little understood by men and women about town. But the dwellers in cities and towns who long ago discarded the pleasure have returned to dancing with a vengeance ever since the American stage dance made its way to Japan after the world war. The new craze is at its height at present: it is not entirely new, however, as Western music and steps were popular here, though only among the elite, during the early years of the Meiji Era. The recent return of this Western creation or recreation first led to a futile discussion as to whether we could embrace it with advantage or not. But today our young and middle-aged people have yielded to the lure, giving little heed to the opinions of theorists.

This phase of our modernized life offers an interesting subject for contemplation. There are many things to account for the wholesale adoption of the Western innovation. To cite a few of them, we have changed from our native kimono into European clothes, our ears have been attuned to Western music, and Western ways of living have become familiar to us by the help of the movies. A still deeper reason for the popularity of the foreign dance is the fact that our urban populations have rediscovered the pleasure of dancing instead of beholding others dance. No matter whether the dance be an imported one or a home product, lively music and an inviting floor brings them to their feet. The call to dip in the fountain of joy forgotten for years by their sedate forebears seems to be irresistible.

The revived appreciation of the dance to be danced and not only to be looked at by the dwellers in cities and villages alike is a fresh start. It holds great promise for the future of the art of dancing in Japan.



Rustic Soma Nagareyama Dance of Fukushima Prefecture

Okesa Dance of Sado Island

JAPANESE STAGE DANCE

The stage dance next engages our attention. In considering this branch of Japanese dancing, which has many minor offshoots, it would be wise to single out from the group the most representative of all, the dances that form part of the "kabuki" plays. For some unknown reason the creators of these dances have confined their labours to the instruction of actors and actresses in the art and have never appeared on the stage themselves. A welcome change in this respect, however, has set in lately and an increasing number of the originators of and instructors in these superb dances are now to be seen on the stage beside the "kabuki" artists who combine in themselves historionic talents and the qualities of good dancers. As long strides forward have been made in dancing as an art, the happy combination of the two gifts in the kabuki players will ultimately become a thing of the past. This prediction is already being borne out by the players of the "new drama" school, who are generally too busily taken up with their own work to pay much attention to dancing. The fact that actors and actresses are fast returning to their own specialities on the stage promises well for professional dancers, among whom we will soon find not a few bright geniuses ripening into great masters.

The awakening of the professional dancers to the true worth of their art augurs well for Japanese dancers in general. True, they are yet groping in the dark, though their eyes have been opened. Very few among them possess any reliable knowledge as to the basic relation of music and dancing. And to add to their baffling difficulties we have double currents of music, our native music which is the growth of centuries and the new music from abroad. The former, of necessity, has a large following among elderly lovers of music, while the latter naturally appeals to younger admirers.

This dividing line also extends to the professional musicians, who are driven into two camps owing to lack of understanding. A samisen expert, for example, knows next to nothing of Western orchestra music, while a Japanese pianist knows as little of Japanese classical music. Thus dance-creators and dancers are left to grope on in the dark in the absence of any light furnished by composers and musicians. Furthermore, persistent neglect of the scientific study of music denies to those who have made good in our classical dancing and music any measure of understanding of Western music. Nor is the knowledge of Japanese musical or postural expression of human feelings as possessed by our professional dancers of the modern school too broad. That the two camps of our stage dance artists have little in common is a deplorable anomaly. Of the two groups, it is generally agreed, noteworthy success is expected from our classical professionals and not from the modernists, if the former can rejuvenate themselves with the virility of the present-day.

In a word, our art of dancing is in complete chaos, a wholesome confusion in a way, as the situation leaves ample room for enterprising artists

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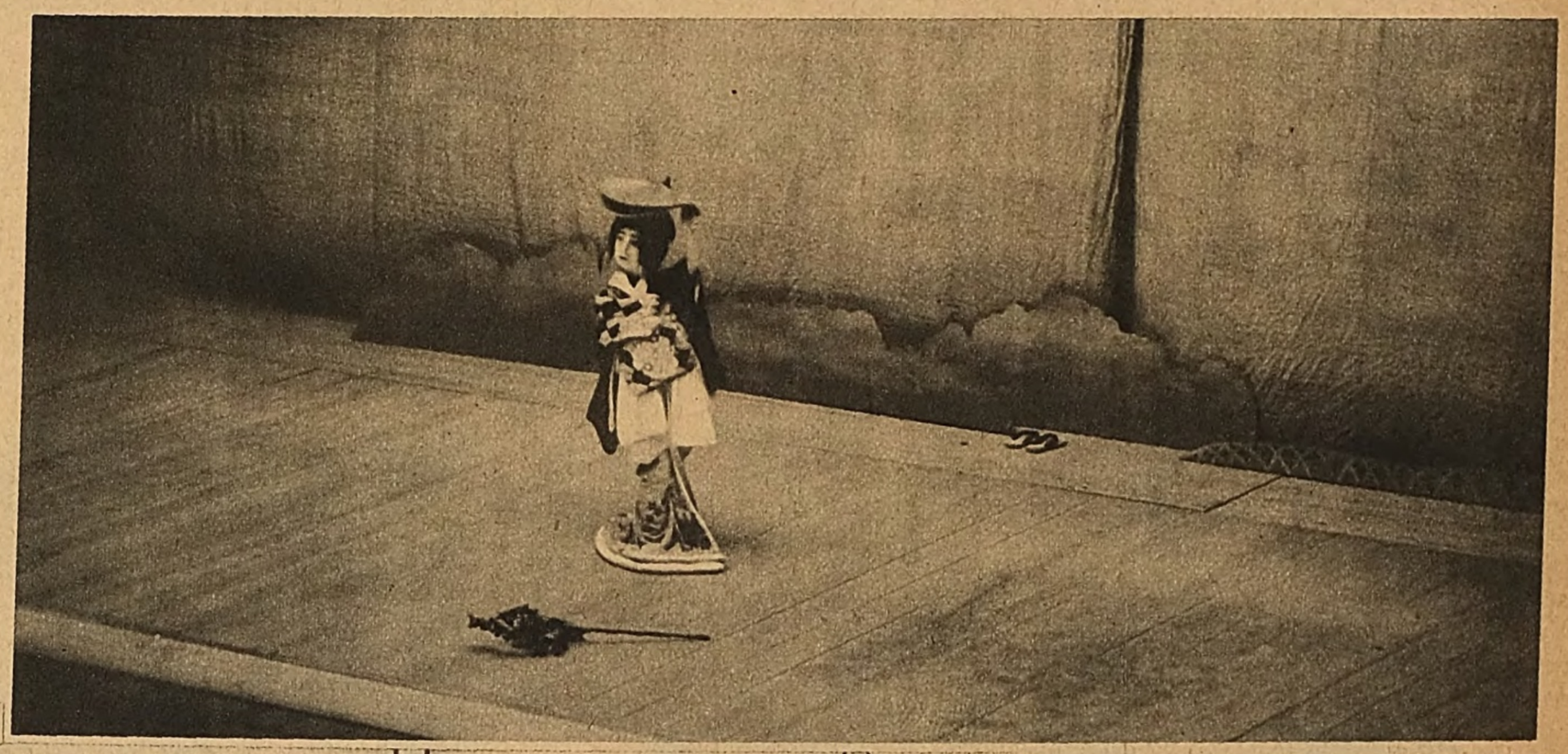
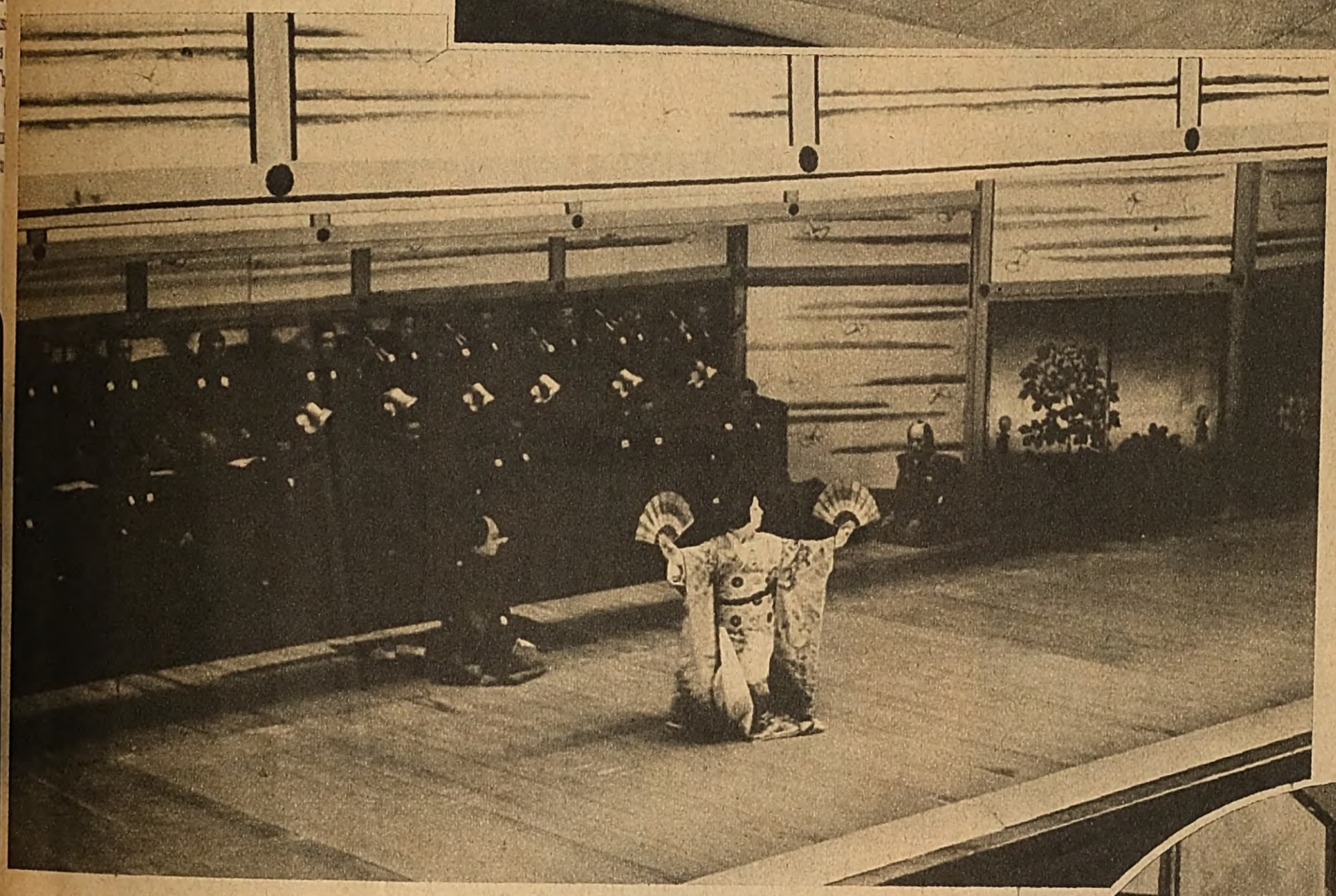
to do what they please by way of revolutionizing the art. They need only be reminded of the rediscovered joy of dancing in the remote corners of the country, as well as in the big cities, to take heart in their worthy attempts. Just what will follow this period of confusion is of great interest and not so difficult to guess as is commonly thought.

CHARACTERISTICS AND TENDENCIES

The masters of Japanese classical dancing are perhaps more exacting than their brothers and sisters in the West. Students of the art are required to pay equal attention to its technique and to their own mental training. This is a peculiarity that should receive due emphasis. A dancer who has mastered the technique of dancing is only half way or a third of the way to his goal. The spiritual half is the more difficult to conquer. One can perform one of these pieces with technical perfection but without adding subtle shades of emotion or feeling to one's acting. It is required of dancers that they shall infuse



Fujima Shizue as Onatsu in the Lovers' Dance, "Onatsu and Seijuro"



Onoe Kikugoro in His Dance, "Kagami Jishi"

to every movement of their hands nd feet the full meaning of the pose, hich may not come readily to those ho have not yet tasted of the joys nd sorrows of life. That is why a nscientious master will not allow is pupils to perform certain dances public until they pass through years mental training. Formerly students ere sometimes made to wait so long at their hair turned grey before they ere given permission to perform ese dances. What is more remarkle is the patience with which such pirants laboured to bring out the iritual effect of their elaborate roles. bviously this prolonged and hard hooling has had a great deal to do ith the marvellous advance the art as made. But genuine wholearted devotion to the art has steadiebbed away until the virtue has come conspicuous by its absence mong our dancers of today, who re given to cheap exaggerations.

The effete mediocrity to which the *kyo* or *odori*, as our dances are called, ave been reduced of late often leads Western critics to make the sweeping eneralization that while free use of he arms is made in Japanese dances, o corresponding motion of the feet is noticeable. Such at least was not the case with our dancers of the better days. One should bear in mind that facility of motion of the limbs is more or less hampered by the kimono. A part from this handicap, emotion was better expressed in all its freshness and intensity by the artists of the past than it is by their successors today. The popularty of outdoor sports and the increasing partiality to European clothes among our people will go a long way toward bringing about a salutary change in our odori, of which the mood is bound to become lighter on account of a fuller measure of freedom given to the feet.

To repeat, it is a clear sign of degeneration that our dancers in these days indulge in excessive movement of the hands and arms and try to express sentiments too lavishly. Nor were our old masters entirely free from faults : there was too much symbolism and allegory implied in their poses and acting. Take the *kagura* dances, for example. Certain movements of the limbs of the dancers often indicate certain principles in the Shinto faith which may pass unnoticed by those who are strangers to Shintoism. Possibly these subtleties will disappear in the dances to be developed in days to come and the absence will be made good by more sparkling freshness and added virility.

It is curious how little attention has been paid to dancing as an aid to physical culture. In view of the fact that this advantage was capitalized to the full by the Greeks in ancient times and that the tradition has been subscribed to by Western peoples to this day, our oversight of this prominent phase is rather extraordinary. Here, too, a change for the better is about to dawn. Liberation of the limbs from the rigid rules of dancing, coupled with the newly rediscovered joy in dancing, will bring a fresh attraction of life to our people. Physical culture and dancing have already begun to drift closer together.

A reviewer of Japanese dancing as a whole would commit a grave sin of omission should he ignore the tremendous impetus given to the art by the recent visits of such prominent Western dancers as Anna Pavlowa, Ruth St. Denis, Ted Shawn, La Argentina, and others. Their performances here came as a great revelation to our experts, who have found their native art in a state of chaos. Some rash dancers have set about fruitless attempts to copy the formula so alluringly put forth by these outstanding masters, while the more sensible of our artists have learnt from them what they judged best and are biding their time to make a wiser use of the knowledge they have thus acquired. What will come out of the seeds planted is an interesting subject for speculation within our shores, as well as abroad. The wildfire rage of the American social dance in our cities, the equally rapid conquest of our urban population by the music im-

Ishii Konami in Her Artistic Dance, "The Chinese Doll"

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ported from the West, and the recent visits paid us by many a bright star from Europe and America naturally tempt a section of our critics to the plausible prediction that Western music will get a firmer and firmer hold on us. These critics evidently overlook the insurmountable limitation that makes it impossible for us to dance to the pieces of Chopin, Schubert, Straus and other foreign composers. One thing is certain, we have none of the cosmopolitan versatility of American artists, who can dance to French, German, Spanish, or Italian accompaniments. We wish we could boast of the same gift. What we can do is to dance to our own music: the only foreign composition we are able to take in is the Chinese. Deplorable as the extremely limited span of our ability may appear, it is in a way a blessing in disguise. The explanation is not far to seek: dancing should be made as rich in local colour as possible and so should dance music. In this respect, La Argentina claims our unlimited admiration for having selected nothing but Spanish music to accompany her performances. Unlike other masters, she endorsed our belief in the nationalism of the art under discussion.

If Japanese composers of dance music are to create a new music to suit the mood of modern Japan from a fusion of our tradition and what is best in Western compositions, it will be very slow in coming. In the meantime our art of dancing will have to mark time on the threshold of its perfection, though in our country dancing has matured and goes on maturing in a degree independent of music. It may be contended with reason that whatever improvement has been made in dancing, in spite of its backward partner, cannot be considered as normal and that perfection in certain phases of the art may be keeping out of sight the stunted nature of its growth due to the slow progress in music. But it remains also true that our master artists have pressed forward with unquestionable success toward the ideal which puts our dancing far above the boundaries of forms and musical components. This ideal remains firm today as it did in the past. It is hardly possible that the future will turn its back on this exacting standard either. One needs not lose heart only because of the scant encouragement given to the *odori* by our composers, as it is capable of development in spite of their tardiness. This is one of the unique assets of our dancing.

PROMINENT JAPANESE DANCERS

Among the foremost dancers of modern Japan are Onoye Kikugoro, Bando Mitsugoro, Ichikawa Ennosuke, Morita Kanya, Matsumoto Koshiro and Onoye Baiko. They are all leading *kabuki* actors. For some reason or other, no dancers of note are found among our actresses, though some twenty years have passed since women responded to the lure of the stage in our land.

Outside the *kabuki* stage, there are a number of excellent professional dancers of both sexes. The following are the shining lights in the classical school. Miss Katayama Haruko of the Inouye school; Miss Shigayama Sei of the Shigayama school; Mr. Fujima Kanyemon (his stage name, as an actor, is Matsumoto Koshiro), Fujima Kanjuro, the Misses Fujima Masaya and Fujima Shizuye of the Fujima school; Messrs. Hanayagi Tokutaro and Hanayagi Jusuke and Miss Hanayagi Tokuji of the Hanayagi school; Mr. Wakayagi Kichizo of the Wakayagi school; and Mr. Umemoto Rikuhei of the Umemoto school. Besides the above well-known masters, there are not a few younger men and women who are coming to the fore.

Among new school dancers, the names of Mr. Ishii Baku and his sister Miss Ishii Konami, and Messrs. Iwamura Kazuwo and Fukui Shigeru may be mentioned as most prominent. Needless to say, the dances they have evolved show a marked indebtedness to Western technique.

Ishii Baku in His Interpretative Dance, "The Renegade Priest"

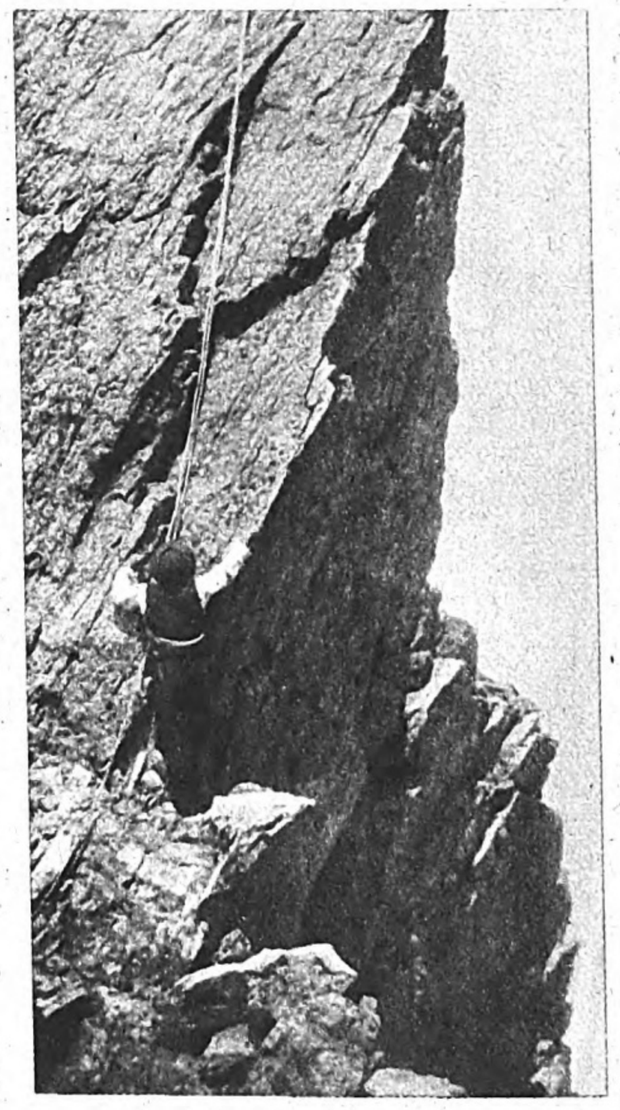
Modern Alpinism in Japan

REV. Walter Weston, an English missionary, in his work, "The Japanese Alps," not only introduced the mountaineous landscapes of Japan to the world but first brought to the Japanese people the knowledge that mountain climbing is a sport. He is now looked upon in this country as "the father of the Japanese Alps."

Mountaineering has made substantial headway in Japan ever since it was introduced by this foreign enthusiast. Its progress has been remarkable aided by the formation of the Japan Alpine Club. The most surprising thing, however, is the great enthusiasm that young students have shown recently for modern alpinism. It is now an annual feature for new records to displace old in rock climbing, mountaineering in winter and mountaineering on skis, the activities in which center round the north Alps bordering the three provinces of Shinshu, Hida and Ecchu.

A big contribution to Japanese mountaineering was made a few years ago by Prince Chichibu when he demonstrated his ability as a rockclimber by ascending the pinnacle of Koyari in the Japan Alps. Besides it is worthy of record that Mr. Aritsune Maki, a well-known Japanese alpinist, was the first climber in the world to reach the summits of Eiger in the European Alps and Alberta in the Canadian Rockies. In this connection the footsteps left by other Japanese such as Messrs. Matsukata, Azoo and Uramatsu in the European Alps are also noteworthy. These adventurous expeditions carried out by Japanese alpinists proved a great stimulus to Japanese mountaineering, in which higher stages have been achieved every year. There is now being considered an over-seas expedition by a group of Japanese alpinists, who have

The Japan Alps Near Yari-ga-Take from an Airplane



Rock Climbing on the Face of Koyari, Japan Alps

the climbing of Kluchevskaya as the first item on their program. Kluchevskaya is the highest peak in Kamchatka and an active volcano emitting fire day and night. It has never been conquered by man, and if this proposed expedition is successfully carried out, it will mean a great deal to mountaineering and science.

The Japan Alps must have lost in primitiveness since they were climbed by Rev. Weston and Douglas Freshfield. But that part of the Alps near Kami-Kochi has gained prominence for its beauty and magnificence, attracting great numbers of mountaineers and campers every year. This part of the Alps is popularly called the Zurmatt of the Japan Alps and has been recommended as a site for a big national park. The most prominent peaks in the Japan Alps are Shirouma-dake and Yariga-dake. The former is noted for alpine flowers and glacial gorges, while the latter is the highest peak in the north Alps and is climbed by thousands of people every year.

Such remarkable progress in Japanese mountaineering, however, has not been achieved without serious sacrifices. The most heart-breaking of these were the deaths in a snow-slide of four Waseda university boys on a ski-climbing trip to Harinoki-toge and that of Mr. Oshima, a Keio university graduate, on Hodaka-dake. These sacrifices seem like set-backs in the development of modern alpinism in Japan, but the contrary is the case. They have given data for the scientific study of mountaineering. Shortly a new phase will be brought into the development of Japanese mountaineering by the organization of two federations of student alpinists which have projects for annual camping trips. The prospects are bright, it is believed, for the further progress of Japanese mountaineering.

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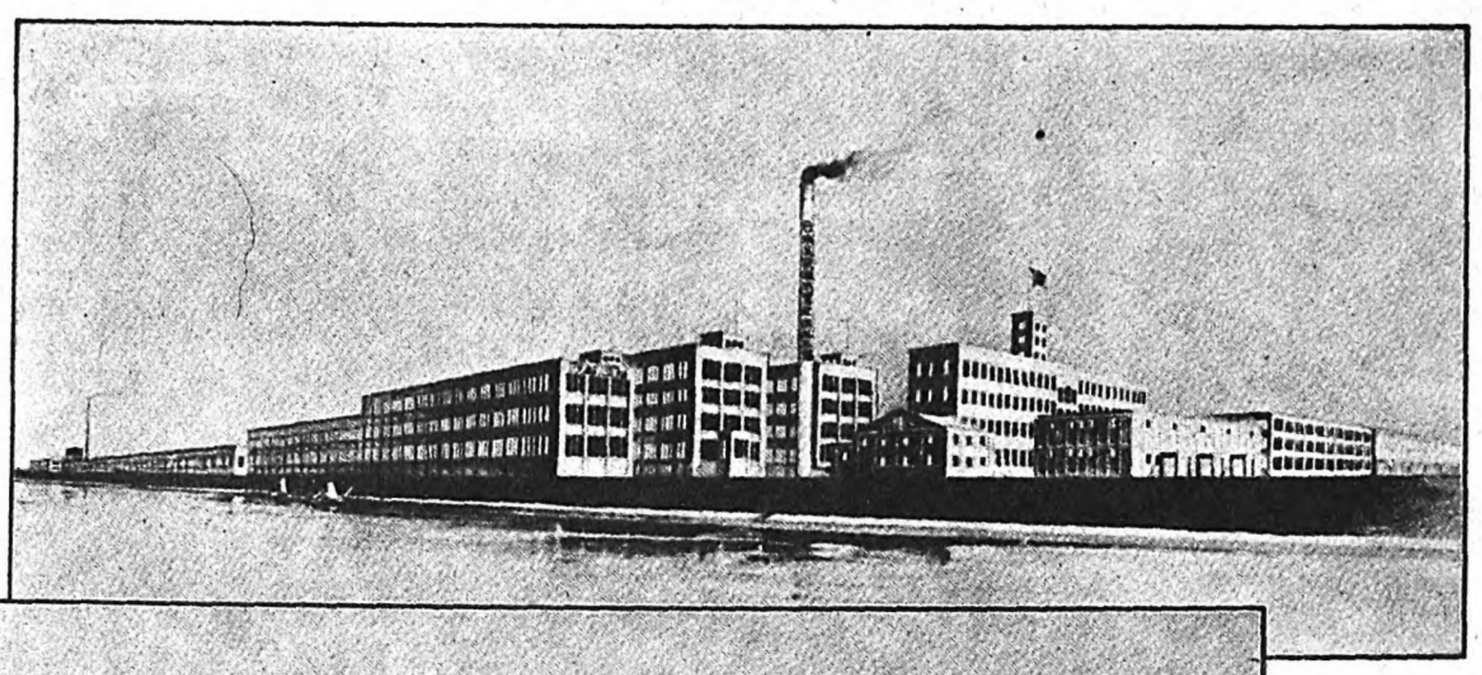

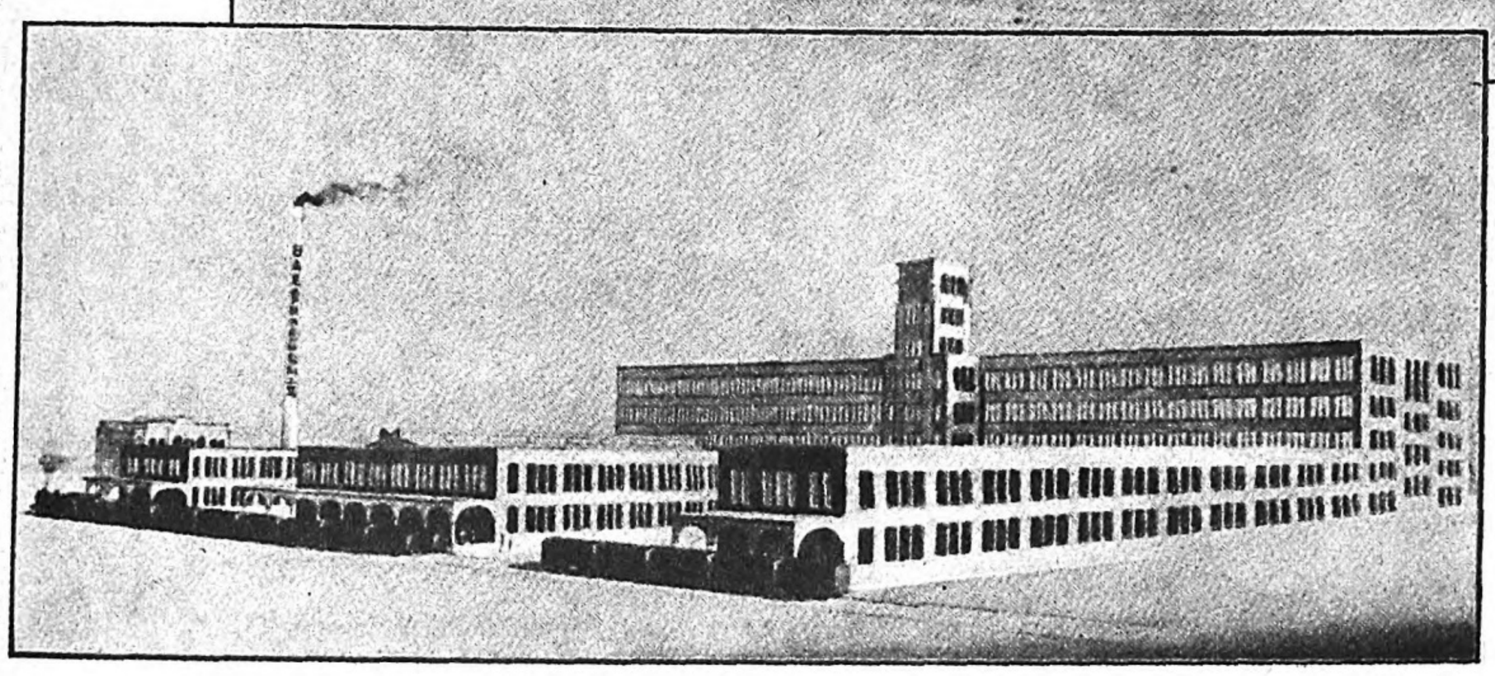

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Social Movements in Japan

Economic, Political, Literary, Artistic and Cultural Activities of the Masses

I. GENERAL OUTLINE

A. Historical Development

THE social movements in Japan are of rather recent date. They have eveloped along with the industrial rowth of the country. The social ovement in the recent meaning of e term was in this country the outrowth of the extraordinary develop-ent of industry and rapid increase in e number of factory workers. The ovement took definite form towards e latter part of the Great War. abour troubles were frequent during e period of industrial prosperity, d they were solved in each instance vourably to the working class. In ost of these cases the outstanding ature was the demand for recognition labour unions by employers.

Such a situation was not brought out solely by the state of affairs at me, but took its stimulus largely m the Russian revolution in 1917 d also from the revolution in Gerany the following year. During enty-five years from 1887 to 1913, ere were on an average 23 strikes year, and on an average the workmen volved were 3,323 a year. In 1919, wever, the corresponding figures ped to 497 and 63,137 respectively. ost of the existing big labour unions re formed or strengthened their ndations during the boom period. is movement among the working ople could not be without its inence on the peasantry, who in thier n started a movement against the dlords, and out of this movement the asants' unions came into existence. So far the movements of these proarian classes were economic in nature d it is only quite recently that they e taken on any political character. e demand for general suffrage rked the first turn toward politics the labour movement. The aprance of the first Labour governnt in England in January, 1924, nulated our labour classes conerably. People emerged from the pute over theories of syndicalism, l their political movements took crete form, when, after going ough many changes and difficulties t lay in their path, the Rodo Nomin-(Labourers' and Farmers' Party) was med and obtained official permisn to exist in March, 1926. This ty was dissolved by government er in April, 1928, in connection h the wholesale raid of the Japan mmunist Party, for the Rodo Nomincomprised in its membership a conerable number of men belonging to Communist Party. Later two three other proletarian political ties came into being, and at present istinct line is drawn between the letarian parties that profess parliantarism and the Communists.

ther social movements are those of nen, students, young men, the heisha people and the movements co-operative associations. These each making its own different deopment. The ebb and flow of the itical movements, which constitute principal current of all the movents, directly react upon the other vements, and the latter to a conrable extent develop in contact h proletarian parties in some form other.

B. Present Condition

ndustry and trade are now suffering n a severe depression. This countas not been visited by a period of iness prosperity since the violent tion of 1920, which was followed by great seismic catastrophe in Tokyo, tohama and the surrounding dis-ts in 1923. In the spring of 1927 the ntry was overtaken by a nation-wide banking crisis. The blows from these successive calamities were too severe to be healed in the space of a few years. Living conditions are getting harder. The continued civil strife in China, our immediate neighbour and one of our biggest customers, has had considerable effect on our foreign trade. The recent Russo-Chinese trouble over the Chinese Eastern Railway is threatening our interests in Manchuria and Mongolia. Business is dull, foreign exchange is subject to violent fluctuations, and the unemployed are growing in number. Such a state of things is unfavourable for social movements. Since the general raid on the Communist Party on March 15, 1928 and the interdiction passed on the three

Mr. Isoo Abe, Leader of the Social Peoples' Party

left associations in April the same year (later to be explained in full), the development of left parties has been retarded considerably, and their movements have met with no success. The central parties have not fared well either, for they have often come face to face with the danger of being split into right and left factions. The right bodies, of which the Shakai Minshu-to (Social People's Party), and the Rodo Sodomei (Japan Federation of Labour) are the central influence, are doing better than the others, and are growing in strength in contrast to the decline of the others. As a whole, however, the labourers' fighting power has been considerably weakened. Thus the formation of labour unions has been reduced. Strikes have in most cases ended in the defeat of the labourers. The discharge of workmen in masses has taken place in many instances. The number of working people who take part in the May Day demonstrations is diminishing each year. According to the returns of the Bureau of Social Affairs the May Day demonstrations were carried out in 23 places this year, and the working people who took part in them aggregated some 23,000, including about 500 girls. Comparing these figures with the corresponding figures for last year, we find a decrease of 5 in the number of places and 1,500 in the number of participants. In this single instance the decrease is not so important, and yet as an instance of the yearly diminishing importance of this demonstration it may serve to evidence the waning influence of labour movements in this country.

Unemployment, which was formerly a mere social problem, has come to be taken up as a political issue, and measures to meet the situation are now being discussed by the government and the public. According to the investigations made in 24 industrial centers of this country in 1925, out of 2,355,000 working population, 105,000, or about 5%, were out of work. The applicants for work at labour exchanges throughout the country last year reached the high figure of 750,719. At present in Tokyo alone there are as many as 40,000 men out of work, and the Bureau of Social Affairs fears this number will increase to 70,000 this fall, when the reconstruction of the city of Tokyo, largely destroyed by the earthquake of 1923, is completed.

This serious unemployment is attributed to the empoverishment of agrarian districts, which has resulted in the flooding of urban districts with former farmers, and the reduction or discharge of working hands at many works and factories, and the closing down or dissolution of factories are adding largely to the figures.

Proletarian political movements are making headway in many directions. At the first general election on a general manhood suffrage basis last year, the proletarian parties secured eight seats among them in the House of Representatives, and this year at the general election of the representatives for local assemblies throughout the country, many of the proletarian candidates were returned.

The Communist movements are prohibited under threat of very severe punishment. On the heels of the exhaustive Communist raids made throughout the country last year, the Law for the Preservation of Public Peace, which provides for capital punishment for offenders and aims at the extinction of Communists, and the Police Regulations for the Maintenance of Public Peace which are generallv criticised

Mr. Ikuo Oyama, Leader of the Dissolved Labourers' and Farmers' Party, Who is Now Making Strenuous Efforts to Organise a New Party

as most anachronistic, were enacted and put in force. On the other hand, such social legislative steps as the enactment of a labour association law, tenant law, unemployment insurance law and other similar laws have not yet been taken. The appearance of the second Labour government in Great Britain, however, inspired hopes in the minds of the public for a representative system of government. The fact that many candidates of proletarian parties have been elected to the local assemblies has important meaning for the future development and expansion of labour parties. The work before the proletarian delegates in the Diet and local assemblies is great and varied, and their field of activities is extensive.

II. POLITICAL MOVEMENTS OF THE PROLETARIAT

Towards the latter part of the last century, an attempt was made by a portion of the intellectual class to organize a social party. This was the first political movement on behalf of the proletariat, but political movements in the present meaning of the term, with the mass of factory labourers and peasants as their object, are of very recent date, as stated above.

The strikes of labourers, which spread over the country with great rapidity toward the end of the Great War, had the effect of establishing the strength of labour unions in a short period of time. On account, however, of the anarchistic inclination of those in the intellectual class that led these labour movements, and the labourers' propensity for direct action, the movement partook largely of the nature of syndicalism, and the repudiation of parliament being a thought pervading the community, the proletariat kept aloof from the general suffrage movements for a long time.

Towards the end of 1924 the Nomin Rodo-to (Farmers' and Labourers' Party) was organized through the merger of the labour unions and famers' associations, but the party was immediately ordered dissolved by the government. The following year the Rodo Nomin-to (Labourers' and Farmers' Party) was organized by nearly the same elements, nominally excluding all extreme left bodies. The party took no active part in the general suffrage movement. It maintained only a passive attitude.

When general manhood suffrage, imperfect and far from being satisfactory as it is, passed the Diet and became a law, there arose a divergence of opinions among the proletarian bodies supporting the Rodo Nomin-to. The right bodies formed themselves into the Nippon Nomin-to (Japan Farmers' Party) and the Shakai Minshu-to (Social People's Party). By the center, that is, the bodies of proletarians that stood between the left and right bodies, the Nippon Rono-to (Japan Labour-Farmer Party) was organized. The members of the Communist Party, which was the object of the raid last year, had continued, since about 1924, their underground activities. Most of its members belonged to the Rodo Nomin-to, which for that reason had the characteristics of a party of the extreme left.

Outside these four proletarian parties, there were numerous local proletarian bodies which quarreled among themselves continually and lost the opportunity to amalgamate. The first election for the prefectural assemblies on the general manhood suffrage basis was held in the fall of 1927. The proletarian parties, however, failed to make the most of the chance, because of the rivalries and strifes among themselves, and in spite of their heated campaigns, the result was most discouraging.

They learned a lesson from this failure and on the occasion of the general election for the House of Representatives in February 1928, a compromise was reached among them, though rather imperfectly, and they secured better reaults, as shown below:

Party	Number of Candidates	Returned	Votes Secured
Shakai Minshu-to	17	4	123,477
Nippon Nomin-to	12	—	40,217
Nippon Rono-to	13	1	83,017
Rodo Nomin-to	40	2	187,047
Local Parties	6	1	34,373
Total	88	8	471,131

For the first time in the political history of Japan the proletarians secured a chance to sit in the legislature of the country. The Seiyukai government, under the premiership of General Baron Tanaka, the late president of the party, brought unreasonably heavy pressure to bear upon the candidates of the proletarian parties at the election, and the candidates af the Rodo-Nomin-to, the left party, suffered most from government interference. This attitude of the government evoked much criticism from the public, which was in sympathy with these candidates, and in spite of it all, eight of them were returned to parliament.

Then there were Communist raids, mergers of parties, and the dissolution of a party by government order. Election for members of city, town and village assemblies have been conducted since January last. The leading proletarian parties in the field are the Shakai Minshu-to, the Nippon Taishu-to, the Seijiteki Jiyu Kakutoku Domei (Alliance for Securing Political Freedom), consisting of the former membrse of the now defunct Rodo Nomin-to, and up to the fifth of May altogether 420 candidates had been returned for village and town assemblies, and 40

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for municipal assemblies. It is remarkable that Mr. Sakai Toshihiko, the veteran socialist who ran for the city of Tokyo, was returned with the largest number of votes in his constituency. This participation in local politics by the masses, which hitherto took little interest in such matters, is expected to supply local autonomies with a stimulating factor and make local politics fair, upright and candid.

A. Left Parties

The general election for the Diet had just been held when all of a sudden on the 15th of March, 1928, over 400 arrests were made throughout the country in raids upon the prohibited Communist Party. On the 10th of the next month the Rodo Nomin-to, the Nippon Rodokumiai Hyogikai (Japan Council of Labour Unions), and the Nippon Musan Seinen Domei (Japan Young Proletarians' Union) were ordered to dissolve on the ground that they were closely associated with the Communist Party.

Mr. Oyama Ikuo and Dr. Kawakami Hajime, the leaders of the defunct Rodo Nomin-to, immediately set about preparations for a new proletarian party. The preparatory association, however, was ordered to dissolve in December the same year. They are keeping up the political movement of the left wing forming a union called the Seijiteki Jiyu Kakutoku Domei.

It was a disgrace to the government that it failed to protect a proletarian member of the House of Representatives against the dagger of a ruffian, when the House was still in session. Mr. Yamamoto Senji, the only left member of the House of Representatives, who faithfully abided by his party through thick and thin, was assassinated on the 5th of March, 1929, by a member of a reactionary body called the Shichisei Gidan, who called on Mr. Yamamoto at his lodging house. As it happened while the Diet was still in session and after severe persecution of the left parties at the hands of the government, public opinion was very critical of the negligence of the Tanaka Government.

By the repeated police raids on the Communists since March last, the prohibition of the three associations, and finally the assassination of their sole representative in the House of Representatives, the political movement of the left proletarians has been greatly weakened. It is thought that it will be very difficult for them to regain their former strength.

B. The Central Party

Half-way between the left and the right, a middle party's position is a difficult one. It receives pressure from both sides, and its ground is often inconsistent and illogical. It seldom mounts to the position of vantage, as is instanced by the Liberal Party of Great Britain. This anguish was experienced by the Nippon Rono-to, which stood for the middle cause between the left and the right. The party worked with the greatest zeal for a merger of the proletarian political parties for the strengthening of the position of the proletarian interest.

Towards the latter part of last year, when the left party was in difficulties, a merger was effected between the Nippon Rono-to, the Nippon Nomin-to, the Kyushu Minken-to, the Chubu Minshu-to, and the Musan Taishu-to. The last named was a political party formed in July last year by Messrs. Yamakawa, Inomata and others, who were dissenters from the now defunct Rodo Nomin-to, and had the strongest inclination toward the left of the above five parties, and the Nippon Nomin-to was at the extreme right of them all. The other three were local proletarian parties. Thus, being a group of elements each possessing different opinions and pursuing different aims, it was essential for the new party to secure harmony between the member unions for any development of the party and any effective movement. This harmony was lacking. Thus the Nippon Taishu-to (Japan Party for the Masses), which was the title assumed by the new party, had difficulties from the first. It lacked combining force and was split up into many factions, and finally in May this year some of its members were expelled from the party, while many others deserted it, leaving it to the members of the former Nippon Rono-to. The party is now reduced to the former insignificant position of the Nippon Rono-to.

Some of the factions that were expelled or deserted from the Nippon Taishu-to will in all probability join the Shakai Minshu-to, while the others who are anti-Communists of the left will form a new legal left party. Judging from the present state of things in this country, it is not at all likely that any left party can secure more influence than that possessed by the Shakai Minshu-to, the extreme right; at least it is most unlikely that it will secure more seats in the House of Representatives than the Shakai Minshu-to.

C. The Right Party

Since the failure of the Nippon Taishu-to, the only proletarian political party of any influence in the right is the Shakai Minshu-to. This party was formed in the fall of 1926, and always stood for parliamentarism. It was directly opposed to the cause of the now defunct Rodo Nomin-to, champion of the left party. The party holds at present four seats in the House of Representatives, and in the next general election it is expected confidently that the party will be able to send more representatives to the Diet. Among the leaders of this party, mention may be made of Mr. Suzuki Bunji, M. P., who is an earnest supporter of the League of Nations and has more than once attended the International Labour Conference at Geneva as Japanese labour delegate; Mr. Matsuoka Komakichi, who has just gone to attend the Eleventh International Labour Conference as the Japanese labour delegate, and Prof. Abe Isoo, who has a great number of admirers among the intellectual classes of the country. As its component elements the Shakai Minshu-to has the Nippon Rodo Sodomei and the Nippon Nominkumiai Sodomei (Japan Federation of Farmers' Unions). The party also has the general support of the labouring and salaried classes in the urban districts, which will tell to a considerable extent at the time of the next general election. At the same time it is an undeniable fact that the party, while conducting continual movements, having immediate bearing upon the interests of the masses of labourers and farmers, runs the risk of plunging out of gear, as have the capitalist parties innumerable times in the past.

Mr. Toshihiko Sakai, Former Member of the "Japan Party for Masses", Who was Elected to the Tokyo City Assembly Last Spring

III. THE LABOUR MOVEMENT

The first labour movement in this country began with the formation of the Union of Railway Employees in 1897. Those combined in the union numbered 5,400. Stimulated by the Sino-Japanese War, which had just terminated, there was a general development of industries along the advanced lines of the West, and labour unions were organized among labourers in many branches of industry. Strikes broke out continually. At last in 1900, the government, with a view to controlling this situation, established the Police Regulations for the Maintenance of Public Peace. The law proved effective, for strikes diminished remarkably. Towards the close of the Great War, however, they revived with ferocity, and in the single year 1919, a great number of labour unions came into existence.

With the rapid expansion of industry, the number of working people in the urban districts swelled enormously. Labour unions have combined and formed district combinations, and they are now organizing into industrial unions. In the guiding principles of these labour organizations there were two distinct tendencies, anarchism and Bolshevism. There was rivalry between the two for some time, but finally the former dropped out. The rivalry that is going on at present is between the believers in parliament and the advocates of Bolshevism. The labour unions are each supporting such proletarian parties as are following the same principles as themselves.

Mr. Hisashi Azo, Pioneer in the Labour Movement Among Mine Workers and Head of the "Japan Party for Masses"

Under these circumstances the merger of all these proletarian bodies is almost impossible, for the present at least. In the May Day demonstrations, protests against the Peace Preservation Law, and other matters of common interest they join hands and take concerted steps.

On the 10th of April last year the Nippon Rodokumiai Hyogikai which was a combination of labour unions of the left, was dissolved by order, and thus the most powerful left association, both in its size and fighting strength, has been lost to the labour movement. On the other hand the combinations of the labour unions of the right, of which the Nippon Rodo Sodomei is the leading organization, are growing in strength.

The political movements by proletarian parties are steadily gaining ground, as are the social movements, in which labour unions are the principal factor. Nevertheless the labourers thus organized in one or other of the unions do not exceed 300,000, less than 10% of the total working population. There is much room for development in the labour movement in this country.

A. Organized Labour

The growth of labour unions since 1918, the year of the great revival of labour movements, is shown in the following table:

Year	Number of Unions	Membership
1918	107	—
1919	187	—
1920	273	—
1921	300	103,000
1922	387	137,000
1923	432	125,000
1924	469	228,000
1925	457	254,000
1926	513	272,000
1927	505	309,500
1928	501	308,900

At the end of December 1928 there were 501 labour unions, with 308,900 members (including 12,010 women). This is a decrease of 4 in the number of unions and 600 in the membership since 1927; apparently this is attributable to the dissolution of left bodies by government order.

Out of these 501 unions, 156, comprising 25,800 members, are craft or trade unions, 202, comprising 2510,50 members, industrial unions, and 143, comprising 32,050 members, unions for labourers in general.

The strength of these labour associations fluctuates a great deal according to the changes that are taking place in the proletarian parties, government oppression, the success or failure of strikes and so on. The returns of the Labour and Capital Harmonizing Association give the following figures showing the condition of the leading labour associations at the end of June 1929:

RIGHT WING

Associations	Members
Nippon Rodo Sodomei (Japan Federation of Labour)	.....
Kangyo Rodo Sodomei (Federation of Workers in Government Employ)	.....
Kaigun Rodokumiai Remmei (Federation of Naval Dockyard Workers)	.....
Nippon Kaiin Kumiai (Japan Seamen's Union)	.....
Kaiin Kyokai (Seamen's Association)	.....
Buso Remmei (Buso Workers' Union)	.....

CENTER

Nippon Rodokumiai Domei (Japan Federation of Labour Unions)	.....
Nippon Rodokumiai Sorengo (Japan Labour Union Association)	.....
Nippon Kotsu Rodokumiai (Tokyo) (Japan Transport Workers' Union)	.....

LEFT WING

Nippon Rodokumiai Zenkoku Kyogikai (Japan National Council of Labour Unions)	.....

ANARCHIST

Zenkoku Rodokumiai Jiyurengokai (National Union of Day Labourers)	.....

The labour associations of the right are supporters of the Shakai Minshu-to, and the centre associations stand for the Nippon Taishu-to. The Seijiteki Jiyu Kakutoku Domei, which is the remnant of the Rodo Nomin-to, the party that was ordered to dissolve by the government, has the support of the labour associations of the left. The anarchist labour association repudiates all political movements on principle.

B. Strikes

Statistical reports of labour disputes for the last fifteen years show the following figures:

Year	Number of Strikes	Workers Involved
1914	50	7,904
1915	64	7,858
1916	108	8,413
1917	298	57,309
1918	417	66,457
1919	497	63,137
1920	282	36,371
1921	246	58,388
1922	250	41,503
1923	270	86,250
1924	333	64,526
1925	293	40,718
1926	495	67,284
1927	383	46,877
1928	397	46,253

With the outbreak of the world war strikes suddenly increased and continued to increase rapidly each year until 1919, when they reached the zenith, dropping suddenly the next year, the year of the violent economic reaction. In 1926, however, an increase became evident. Up to 1919 the demands put forth by the strikers were for increase of wages, improvement of conditions and so on, and the claims were positive claims. In later years the strikes were largely negative, their demands in most cases being protests against wage reductions and the lengthening of working hours, and claims for reinstatement of discharged comrades.

This shows how the economic depression is becoming more severe and making the position of labourers, exposed to the dangers of unemployment, the more difficult. They are driven to the last resort, the strike, for the negative defence of their position. Strikes have suddenly increased this year, and by the end of April 300, involving 31,858 persons, had been reported. This is an increase of

(Continued on Page

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The Japanese Language

The Characters Used in Writing It, Their History, and Present Tendencies

IMPORTATION OF CHINESE CHARACTERS

IOW the ancient Japanese adored their own language may be judged m the fact that they called their intry. "Kototama no Sakiô Kuni" country where the spirit of words ives). The Japanese tribe retained anguage of their own, which, they ieved, was handed down to them the Gods. They, however, lacked means of recording their words. us the divine words as well as divine poems were handed down m mouth to mouth for centuries, il about 1,700 years ago, when inese characters were imported into country together with the civi- tion of Korea and China. The ient Japanese found in the Chinese racters a means of preserving their cious language. Unfortunately, vever, these characters were not ted to the purpose of transcribing Japanese language. How pain- y the old Japanese strove to fit m to this purpose is illustrated the "Mannyôsyu" (the oldest col- ion of Japanese odes) and the ziki (the oldest history of the Jap- se people written in the Japanese guage). The methods adopted for nsliterating the words were ny and varied. The nese characters, which had h its own meaning, were d sometimes in metaphoric sometimes in comic ways. The invention of *Kana* (a t of alphabet, derived m the Chinese characters) ked a great progress in representation of the anese language, and this h the progress of the study China, brought about the den age in Japanese rature. Such classical works the "Genzi Monogatari" the "Makura no Sôsi" e the products of the age. other important factor in anese literature was the roduction of Buddhism. e *Yôkyoku* or *Utai* (the t of No, a sort of lyric y which has a peculiar style representation) was the duct of Buddhist influence.

II. INTRODUCTION OF CHRISTIANITY

It may be of some interest Western readers to note part played by Roman ters in the Japanese language. e oldest Japanese book written *Rômazi* (Roman letters) appeared 1591, and was entitled "Sanctos Gosagveo no vchi Nvqigaqi" bstracts from the Acts of the ostles). In 1549 the missionary, ancis Xavier, landed in Kagosima, port at the southern extremity of island of Kyûshû. He was the t man to bring the gospel of the rd into Japan. Some forty years er, a missionary named Alexandro lignani came over to this country nging with him a printing press and few printers. Thus a new method transliterating the Japanese language s introduced into the country. me years previously firearms had ppened to be introduced by some rtuguese mariners, who got stranded Tanegasima Island, and these, o, had a lasting influence on Japanese vilization.

Xavier was a priest of noble Spanish igin and a hero, too. His plans were ite systematic, and he tried to rry out his missionary work according to a practical method. First of all he had an audience with Prince Simadu, the lord of the clan, and presenting him with rare pictures, utensils, and various other articles unknown in the country, obtained his permission to preach Christianity in the clan.

On the one hand the Japanese in those days had a great yearning for new knowlege and took a deep interest in the western civilization brought over by him, and on the other Xavier and his party showed moral excellence and zeal in their mission of preaching the gospel of God. Xavier first studied the language and proceeded to publish a book written in his own way and according to an original plan. This was the "Sanctos no Gosagveo no vchi Nvqigaqi," referred to before. The book consisted of two volumes, pocket size. It is in the Bodleian Library, England. The "Doctrina Christan", which came out in 1592, is in the Tôyô Bunko (the Eastern Library) in Japan. There were several other works in Rômazi, such as the "Fides no Doxi". It is of great interest that such classical Japanese books as "Heike Monogatari" and "Taiheiki" were transliterated into Rômazi by these missionaries.

ESOPONO
FABVLAS.
Latinuo vaxite Nippon no cuchito nasu mono nari.
IESVS NO COMPANHIA NO
Collegio Amacusani voite Superiores no gomenqiotoxite coreuo fanni qizamu mono nari.
Goxuxxe yori M. D. L. XXXXIII.

" Esop's Fables," in Romazi, Published by Jesuit Missionaries in 1593

There was a translation of Æsop's Fables in Rômazi, and abstracts from the "Four Chinese Classics" and the "Seven Books."

Æsop's Fables are too well known to require explanation. The "Heike Monogatari" is a prose-poem written in the thirteenth century. It describes the glory of the Taira family, and its downfall, with the rise of the rival Minamoto family, showing the vicissitudes of fortune during a period of twenty years.

The "Taiheiki" is a narrative history of war, written in the fifteenth century. It narrates the downfall of the Hodyô family, Asikaga Takaudi's revolt, the decline of the Yosino Dynasty, and related incidents. These two works are masterpieces of the war literature of our country.

The Christian missionaries' literary achievements had great value and importance from the point of view of the civilization and religion of our country. They also furnished various suggestions for the improvement of the Japanese language and a convenient way of writing it. The "Doctrina Christan", to which reference has been made, was first written in Chinese characters and *Kana*, apparently for the use of Japanese converts. It was then transliterated into Rômazi, for the benefit of foreign missionaries learning the Japanese language. The spelling was according to the Spanish and Portuguese system, and though it showed a lack of study into the intrinsive nature of the language, yet in the book Japanese and foreign words were clearly represented in Rômazi as they were spoken at that time. The writer must have had literary talent, for the book is notable for richness of vocabulary and ease of presentation. It introduced, so to speak, a new style of Japanese. We are inclined to believe that had this new method of representation of the language be allowed to develop, it would have stimulated considerably the development of our literature, and the language would have been enriched materially. It is a matter of regret that the new system of Romanization of the Japanese characters was stunted in its growth in connection with the persecution of Christianity.

III. HINT GOT FROM SIDOTTI

In 1715, over 120 years after the publication of the "Sanctos no Go-

NIFON NO
COTOBA TO
Historia uo narai xiran to
FOSSVRV FITO NO TAMENI XEVA NI YAVA RAGVETARV FEIQE NO MONOGATARI.
IESVS NO COMPANHIA NO
Collegio Amacusa ni voite Superiores no go menqio to xite coreuo fan ni qizamu mono nari.
Go xuxxe yori M. D. L. XXXXII.

"Heike Monogatari" in Romazi, Published by the Jesuits 1592

sagveo no vchi Nvqigaqi", the famous scholar, Arai-Hakuseki, saw a Roman missionary named Giovanni Battista Sidotti, at the "Kirisitan-Yasiki", in Koisikawa, Yedo, by order of the Syôgun, and heard his explanation of his doctrine. Arai-Hakuseki was a scholar and a statesman at the same time, and was well versed in both the Chinese and the Japanese classics. After the interview, he wrote a book about his conversation with the Roman missionary. It was entitled "Seiyô Kibun" (Things Western) and consisted of three volumes. The persecution of Christianity was still being actively enforced at that time. This memorable book, therefore, was vetoed by the authorities, because it contained an explanation of Christianity. During the Tokugawa Regime the manuscript was not read by the public. It was not until 1882, 160 years later, that the book was published. It furnished good material for judging of Sidotti's attainments and personality and Arai-Hakuseki's sense and understanding. About Western letters he wrote in the book: "The letters used in Western countries are of two styles: the one Latin and the other Italian. The former can be likened to the 'Kaisyo' form of Chinese characters, and the latter to the 'Sôsyo'. The number of letters is only twenty-odd, and still by their combinations any sound may be represented. The letters are simple, and the words have profound meanings. It is a wonderful system." He went on to explain, "The Chinese characters are counted by tens of thousands, and nobody can be expected to learn all of them by heart, however strong his memory may be, and still there are sounds, for which no corresponding characters exist. Therefore the Chinese characters, though ever so numerous, are still far from sufficient, and still our brains are strained unnecessarily simply in the study of these imperfect characters..."

It may be too much to infer from this comparison of the Chinese characters and Roman letters, that Arai-Hakuseki was of opinion that Roman letters should be adopted for the representation of the Japanese language in place of the Chinese characters. But judging from his talent as statesman and genius as linguist, we may not be far wrong if we call him a pioneer among the advocates of the omanization of the Japanese language.

IV. AWAKENING OF CLASSICAL SCHOLARS

Arai-Hakuseki got the hint for his opinion of the Japanese language from his knowledge of Dutch. Another distinguished figure was Kamo-no-Mabuti, who siezing the opportunity offered by the general trend of the revival of classical Japanese, urged upon the people the importance of a knowledge of one's own language. Had he not gone any further than denouncing devotion to the Chinese characters and the study of Chinese literature at the expense of the national language, he would not be much different from other scholars from the linguistic point of view. But this advocate of nationalism got one step further than the mere rejection of the Chinese characters, for he declared, "The Hindus, with the help of 50 letters, recorded the words of Buddha, which comprised over 5,000 volumes. In Holland the number of letters is still smaller, for it is only 25." Thus after describing to the people the superiority of those countries in respect of letters, he went on to point out that "the Chinese, on the other hand, have contrived a complicated system of characters. The country has never been ruled in peace. The characters are too inconvenient." Thus he ascribed the perpetual disturbances in China to the complication of the Chinese characters, which certainly touches upon the fundamental principle of education. Another important point in his essay was the following passage: "Most of the countries of the world have a similar system of letters," which suggests the superiority that Roman letters possess over *Kana*.

The *Kana* has a history of centuries in Japan, but its use is limited to Japan only, while Roman letters are universal, having been adopted by all the civilized countries of the world as a medium of representing their respective languages. Rejuvenated Turkey has recently adopted Roman letters with good success, and the people are deriving much benefit from it in their daily life.

To make the Japanese language understood throughout the world and give it international importance, Roman letters, which have been universally adopted, are far better than *Kana* syllables, which are peculiar to this country, as laid down by Kamo-no-Mabuti, a noted scholar of Japan, some 160 years ago.

V. EMPHASIS OF WORLD-WISENESS

In emphasizing the advantages of the Roman system of writing, Honda-Tosiaki was more ardent than Kamo-no-Mabuti, when he published his "Keisei Hisaku" (Secret of Statecraft) some 30 years later. In about the same generation Morizima-Tyû-

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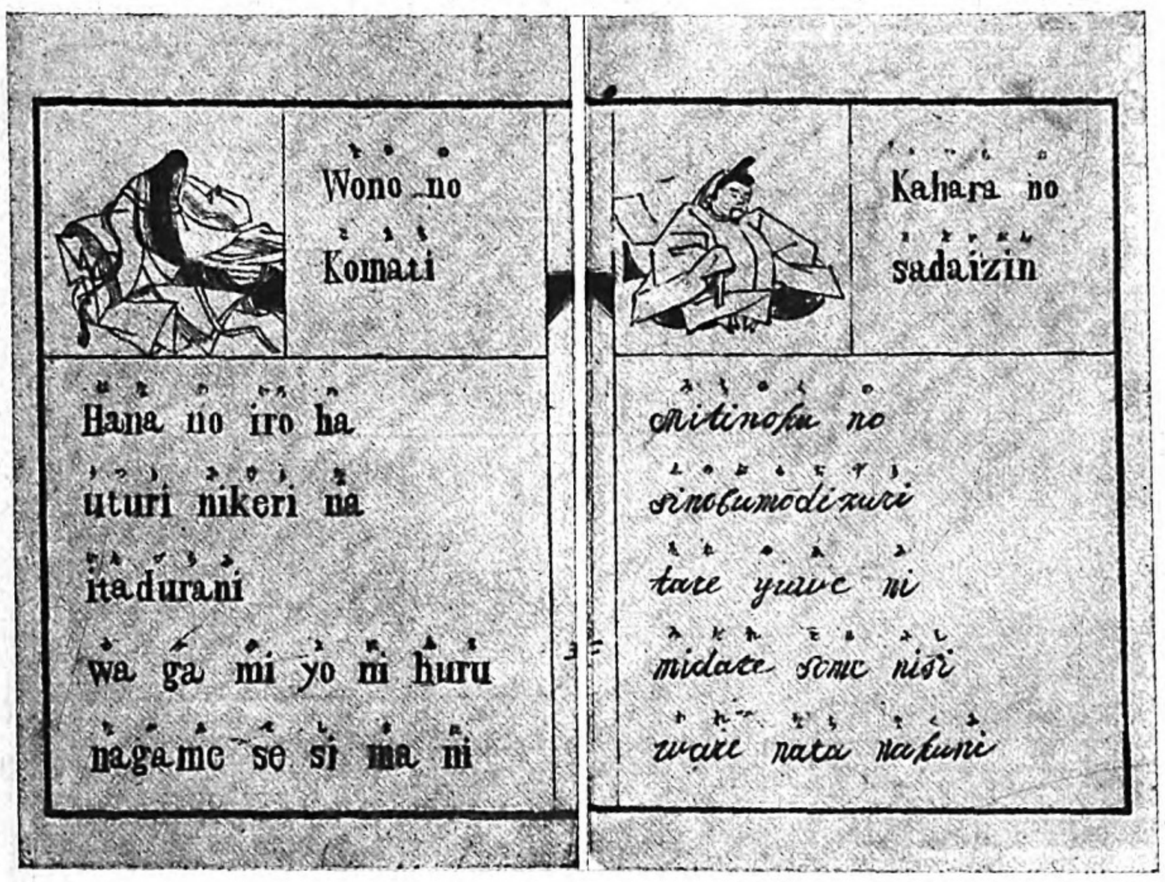
ryô published a book entitled "Kômô Zatuwa" (Desultory Talks on the West), in which is found the following passage: "In the book describing things of the countries of the world, a Westerner ridiculed the Chinese characters by saying that the Chinese manufacture a character for each object and for each thing. One character sometimes stands for one thing only, and sometimes has ten to twenty meanings; thus the number of characters amounts to tens of thousands. However hard one may study, it is next to impossible to learn all the characters with their meanings in one's lifetime. For this reason few Chinese are able to read books written in their own language with any ease. What an absurd condition!"

The same may be said of the Japanese, who have adopted the Chinese characters for representing their language, a matter to be greatly regretted.



"A Hundred Verses by a Hundred Poets," in Romazi, Published in 1873

VI. ENLIGHTENED MEN IN THE EARLY PERIOD OF THE MEIDI ERA

It is reassuring to find two enlightened men, one towards the end of the Syogunate and the other in the early period of the restoration. A revolutionary spirit pervaded the country in those days, and their opinion may be taken as an expression of the yearning for the civilized life that was latent in every man's heart. The first man was Maezima-Tubara (later Baron Maezima) who in the year 1866 made a representation to Tokugawa-Keiki, the last of the Syoguns, urging upon him the necessity of dispensing with the Chinese characters. He also gave his opinion about the education of the people.

The second man was Nisi-Amane. He wrote advocating the employment of Roman letters for writing the Japanese language. This essay covered the first 19 pages of the first number of the periodical entitled "Meiroku Zassi." In his opinion there are ten benefits to be derived from the adoption of Roman letters in writing the Japanese language, while the disadvantages would be only three. The ten benefits are:

1. By Romanization, Japanese would stand on a scientific basis.
2. One could first learn one's own language and then proceed to the study of foreign languages.
3. Agreement between the spoken language and written language might be effected.
4. By learning the 26 letters of Alphabet, and the rules of spelling and pronunciation, all could read and write alike.
5. Agreement between words and mathematical figures.
6. Correction of the system of spelling invented by Hepburn and Roni.
7. Convenience of the translation of foreign languages.
8. The possibility of European printing machines being employed as they are.
9. Convenience in the use of original terms in science.
10. Once this system of representation of our language is established all the civilization of Europe is ours."

After commending the absorption and assimilation of the latest civilization and knowledge that might be made possible by the adoption of Roman letters, he gave vent to the the ambition and vigorous spirit of the self awakening nation, when he concluded his article by saying, "Let us show the world how freely, but with what discretion, our people can adopt anything good from other peoples, and rival them in its use."

The three disadvantages that Nisi-Amane enumerated as resulting from the adoption of Roman letters are:

1. Loss of Chinese ink stone and brush merchants, who will be thrown out of their business.
2. Transfer of the work of paper manufacture (from the manufacture of Japanese paper to the manufacture of foreign style paper).
3. The straits of classical Chinese and Japanese scholars.

Such disadvantages are too trivial to deserve any serious consideration.

VII. HEPBURN'S MERITORIOUS SERVICE

The question of the written language and the system of representing the language was revived with vigor in the early years of the Meidi Era, and some practical schemes were advanced.

In those days the achievement of Dr. Hepburn in the practical field deserves special mention. Dr. Hepburn was an American, and practised in medicine. He was 44 years of age when in 1859 he came over to Japan as medical attaché to the American consulate at Yokohama. In those days the anti-foreign agitation was at its height. Dr. Hepburn took his residence in a temple named "Zyôbutuzi" at Kanagawa near Yokohama. First of all he set about the study of the Japanese language. With the help of Kisida-Ginkô, a famous writer and scholar, he completed a Japanese-English and English-Japanese dictionary all written in Rômazi, and had it printed in Shanghai in 1867, 8 years after his arrival in Japan.

This was the first comprehensive lexicon, comprising over 20,000 words. In those days the people had begun to study English with zeal and Dr. Hepburn's dictionary, which was then the only complete dictionary, met with a hearty welcome from the students of the English language, and by 1886 three editions had been sold out. Great as was the service this dictionary rendered to the study of English, it had a far greater meaning for the Japanese language.

It showed good sense and discretion in the choice of refined Japanese, and has provided evidence to the claim of the advocates of Rômazi that in order to adjust our language and keep it safe from confusion, degeneration and disorder it is absolutely necessary that Japanese be Romanized.

The zeal and sincerity of purpose of foreigners and the efforts of foresighted Japanese who helped them in their work are remarkable. Works in Rômazi are practical evidence of the supreme flexibility of Roman letters and the advantages enjoyed by those countries that have adopted them for the writing of their languages as already recognized by Arai-Hakuseki centuries ago.

VIII. GROUP MOVEMENTS

The growing demand for reorganization or adjustment of the language and the means of representing it, gave rise to several movements. Some claimed that all Chinese characters should be driven out of the country, and *Kana* should be used exclusively. Some forty years ago, there were several societies of *Kana* advocates, with their organs, and almost at the same time, groups of advocates of Romanization of the language arose, publishing essays on science, medicine and law and literary works in their organs, all printed in Roman letters, and they published books also in the same style.

Rômazi no Mondokoro

Old Creats in Romazi

IX. ESTABLISHMENT OF THE JAPANESE SYSTEM OF SPELLING

In connection with the Romanization of Japanese there is one thing that should never be overlooked. It is the relation between Roman letters and the intrinsic nature of our language. The system of spelling adopted by Dr. Hepburn and Mr. Chamberlain, distinguished translator of Japanese classics, was that of representing Japanese words in Roman letters just as they are sounded, and as they are heard by American and English ears. Their system, therefore, does not at all times agree with the special characteristics of the language.

After minute study and deliberate consideration the so-called "Nipponsiki" (Japanese system) of Romanization was worked out and published by Dr. Tanakadate-Aikitu in 1885, and later it was completed by Dr. Tamaru-Takurô, who worked out grammatical and other features of the system. The system is an ideal one, happily agreeing with the nature of the language and easy to learn. It is this system that possesses the greatest probability of being adopted as the standard system for the country. This system is now obtaining nation-wide recognization as the standard spelling and being recognized internationally, for in the international map, prepared by the army this Japanese system is adopted. The navy, too, uses this system when anything is written in Rômazi. The chart published by the Hydrographic Office is lettered also in the Japanese system. It is also adopted by the Department of Communications.

X. THE JAPANESE SYSTEM OF ROMANIZATION AND PHONETICS

Mr. H. E. Palmer, Linguistic Adviser to the Department of Education, a noted phonetician, made a study of the relation between the Japanese system and phonetics in a very scientific way and published the results of his studies in 1922 in a pamphlet entitled: "Why I Became Converted to the Japanese System of Romanization."

We may cite the following passage from the pamphlet: "Now for the past few years, English phoneticians have been engaged in working out a similar national question: how to improve the English spelling. A far-reaching investigation by Prof. Daniel Jones, one of the foremost phoneticians in the world, of London University, and his colleagues has revealed the undeniable fact that the true phonetic unit of language is not a sound only—it is something more; it is sound + X, —and leads to the discovery of what is called a "phoneme." A phoneme is a group of two or more sounds which are interchangeable in a language without affecting the sense of a word. The study of the phoneme has brought phoneticians to the conclusion, that the ideal one sound one symbolis absolutely unworkable when it comes to writing down a national language. The practical and really scientific principle is 'one phoneme one symbol'. It is a remarkable fact that Dr. Tanakadate and other promoters of the Japanese system, working independently in Japan more than thirty years ago, hit upon the

Rômazi no Han

Ue Otomo-Sôrin
Sita Hidari Hosokawa-Tadaoki
Sita Migi Kuroda-Nyosui

Old Seals in Romazi

very principle and evolved a system broad enough to embrace all the different shades of pronunciation found in Japan—a system based on a principle which it had taken English phoneticians twenty years to find out.

Japan now stand high in the esteem of the world. International relations are getting closer and more complicated. By adoption of Roman letters in place of the present system of the dual use of *Kana* and Chinese characters for recording its language, Japan would be better understood internationally, and the national efficiency would be enhanced in many respects.

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No Masks

How to Appreciate Them

By Toyoichiro Nogami

No masks are the best of the Japanese masks. Of course we have a good collection of other superior masks used in Gigaku and Bugaku, the oldest music dances in Japan. But these masks were introduced from the Continent, and although similar ones were made in Japan, they were simply imitations. Incidentally, it is curious to note that the lands where these masks originated, namely, China, Indo-China, Korea, etc. have no longer any trace of them, and we are the only nation which can boast of a collection of these masks.

The *No* masks, on the contrary, are purely Japanese, although we must admit that in the early period of their development, they were influenced to a certain extent by those of the Gigaku and Bugaku. The influence of these masks was, however, soon got rid of, because *No* masks in the course of evolution found a method of expression of their own, and they have been brought to perfection as purely Japanese masks. How essentially Japanese they are is attested by the fact that their artistic value cannot be really understood by any country outside Japan. It is my object in writing of them to call at of this important fact.

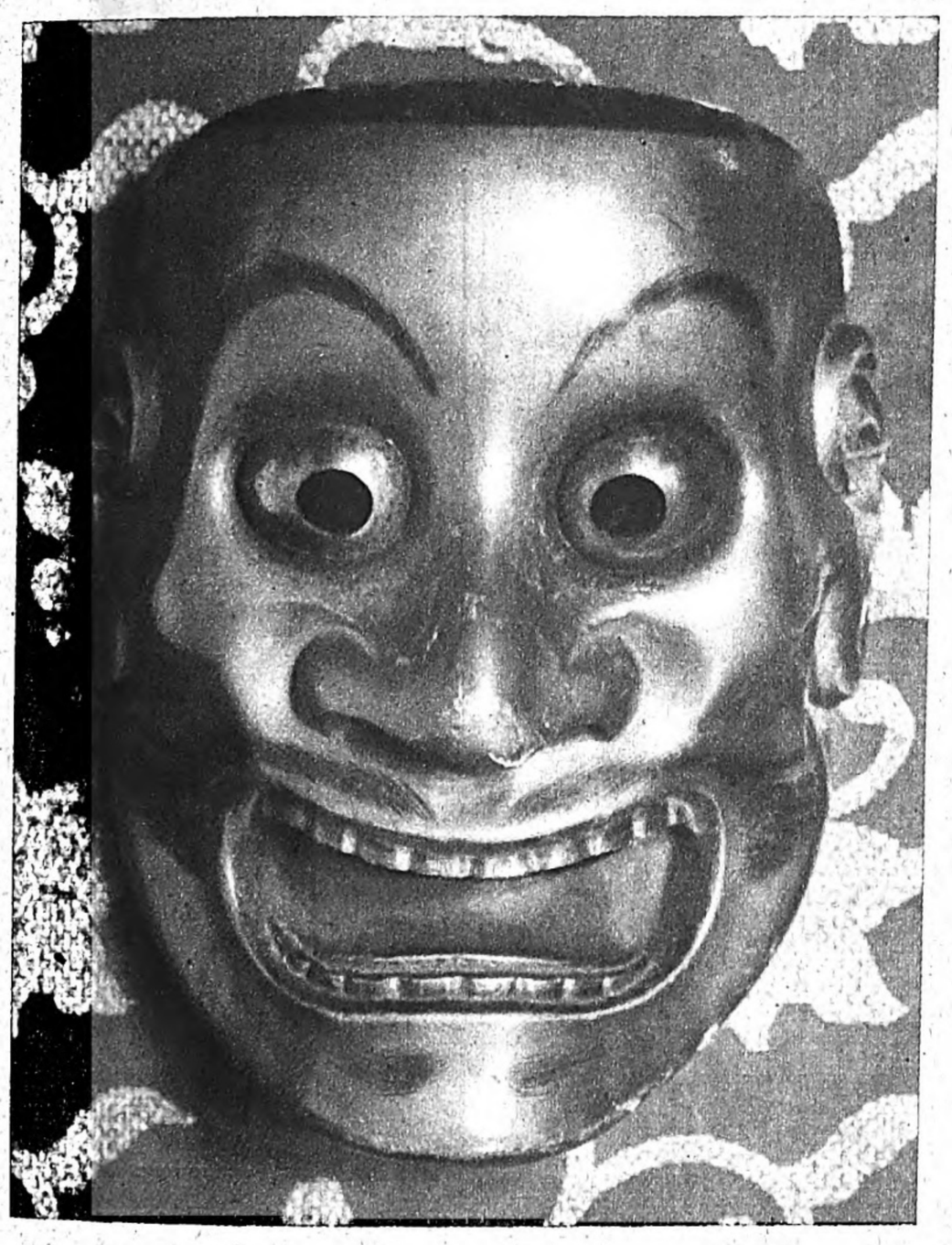
It was thirteen centuries ago that Gigaku was first introduced into Japan. In the twentieth year (612 A.D.) of the reign of the Empress Suiko, the first Empress to ascend the Japanese Throne, a naturalised Korean named Mimashi brought to Japan a number of the Gigaku plays and some masks to be used in them. These masks were for a long time preserved at the Horyuji Temple at Nara, and later they were transferred as Imperial treasures to the storehouse of the Imperial Household Museum in Tokyo, where they are still kept. These masks number thirty-one. I cannot tell whether they are all the original ones brought by the naturalised Korean, but I can assert that the greater portion of them were brought to Japan thirteen centuries ago. These masks, together with two other collections of Gigaku masks, namely, one hundred and sixty-four masks which are among the Imperial treasures in the Shosoin, and twenty-three masks which were formerly preserved in the Todaiji Temple at Nara and are now exhibited at the Imperial Household Museum at Nara, constitute precious reference treasures of Oriental culture.

Gigaku was introduced in the period when Buddhism was most prosperous in Japan. The most notable leader of Buddhism in those days was Umayado-No-Oji, the crown prince later called Shotoku Taishi. He was a nephew of the Empress Suiko, and was Prince-Regent. He was a great devotee of Buddhism, and rendered valuable services to the cause of the religion, delivering lectures, creating various rites and ceremonies, and building temples. It was he who built Shitennoji Temple at Osaka, and Horyuji Temple at Nara, where religious ceremonies were performed on a grand scale. At these temples he had the continental Gigaku Dances performed in order to please the masses. Although we cannot know exactly what they were like, by the old masks above mentioned, and some properties, such as clothes, and an old record, it is supposed that they must have been extremely amusing farcical plays.

The Bugaku, which was next introduced, makes a strong contrast with the Gigaku. With a few exceptions, the Bugaku was a very solemn dance with regular movements and harmonious music. The Bugaku is divided into Toh-gaku, or the music of the Chinese Kingdom, Tenjiku-gaku, or the music of India, Rin-yu-gaku, or the music of Indo-China, Koma-gaku or that of the Korean Peninsula, Tora-gaku, or that of Saishuto Island off the Korean Peninsula and Bokkai-gaku, or that of the Russian Maritime Provinces. But it was the geniuses of the Tang Period of China who originally perfected the Bugaku as a music dance. When the Bugaku was introduced, or rather diffused, among the above mentioned lands, it took on varied local colour. When these various kinds of the music dance were introduced into Japan, they were classified by the nationalities of the introducers. It may be inferred that the introduction of the Bugaku was after 646 A.D.,—that is, a little after the introduction of the Gigaku. Even after that the music dance was re-introduced several times, and after passing through revision and selection, was long preserved as the Court dance, in which Emperors and Princes participated. Even today we have the Bugaku played, but as there is no great talent for the performances, we must be content with poor formal imitations of the music dance by which we can hardly realise the genuine original Bugaku. The performers of the Gigaku used masks, but those of the Bugaku generally did not, only using them in some particular pieces. Presumably the pieces developed outside of China necessitated the use of masks.

The difference between the masks used in Bugaku and those used in Gigaku is that while the latter were bigger in form, and were so made as to cover the whole head, just like those used in the old classical Greek theatres, the masks of the former were much smaller and only covered the face. To speak of a more fundamental difference, the mask of the Gigaku is very realistic, while that of the Bugaku is rather symbolical. The change of the expression of masks from realistic to symbolic surely shows progress if judged historically. For if a mask expresses a sentiment, such as joy, sorrow, fear, or anger, it expresses only one particular sentiment, and nothing else. How, for instance, is it possible to express sorrow by a smiling mask. A symbolic expression, on the other hand, has no such inconvenience, for geometrically presupposing all kinds of expressions, mask-makers devised an abstract expression applicable to all kinds of sentiments. The Bugaku mask has, however, still some traces of realistic expression such as is found in the Gigaku masks. Then the *No* masks, which are entirely free from such realistic expression, can be said to be the most highly developed masks, as far as expression is concerned. If masks are valued as engraved articles, having their own independent *raison d'etre*, the masks of Gigaku and Bugaku are certainly very superior and never to be placed behind the masks of the *No*, but since masks are nothing

Koomote, by Ishikawa Tatsuemon Shigemasa, About 1280. The Typical Face of a Beautiful Woman. Tatsuemon Made Three of These Masks. They were Given by Toyotomi Hideyoshi, the First to the Head of the Komparu School, the Second to Tokugawa Ieyasu and the Third to the Head of the Kongo School. Kongo Ukyo, of Tokyo, Now Has the Third of These in His Possession. The Second, Which was Kept by the Tokugawa Bakufu, was Destroyed in a Fire in Yedo Castle. The First Finally Came into the Possession of Kinnosuke, of Kyoto, Head of a Branch of the Kongo School, so that Both of the Two Masks Still Existing are Owned by the Kongo School.



Otobite, by Deme Yoshimitsu, About 1616. A Mask with a Fierce Expression. Owned by the Kongo School.

Sanju Hajin, a Bugaku Mask Owned by the Tamukeyama Shrine, Nara

Gigaku Mask, National Treasure in the Temple Todaiji, Nara. On the Back is the Following Inscription; Made by Todaiji Soshu Uonari, the Ninth Day of the Fourth Month of the Fourth Year of Tempyo Shoho (752).

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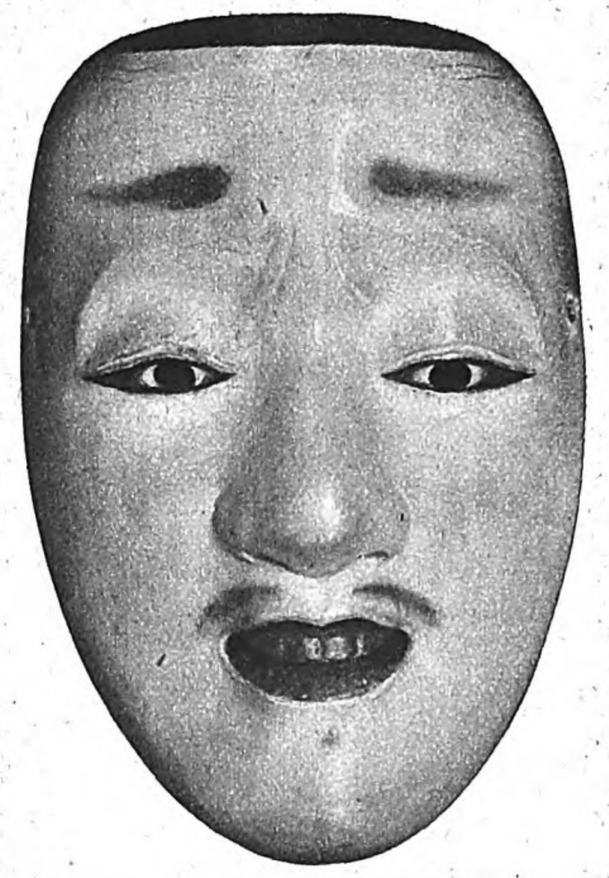
but properties to be used in performances, it may be said that the expression of the *No* mask has been devised with matchless skill and sagacity. Strange as it may sound, I attribute this to non-expressionism by which I mean neuter expression which can be applied equally well to sorrow, joy, fear and anger. To speak of the lips, those of the *No* mask are neither closed nor opened, but half open, thus taking a middle position. By angles of inclination of the mask, the lips are seen as closed or open. The muscles around the lips, which possess very delicate slopes, such as the musculi orbicularis oris, the m. risorius, etc. sometimes take on a gloomy shade, and sometimes a bright brilliancy. And a similar and even more important treatment is given the eyes. As in the case of the lips, the eyes are so made as to suit both occasions, opened and closed, and wonderful is their expression, which makes good the defect of the immovable eye-balls. However dexterously a mask is engraved, it has this drawback that its eyes are immovable, like those of a fish. In order to overcome this inconvenience the talented *No* mask maker has opened two holes in the eyes, so that their line of vision, if seen from in front, forms two horizontal lines which do not meet. These holes in their ordinary condition give an aspect of non-expressionism, so much so that one is led to wonder if the eyes express absent-mindedness. But once a little inclination is given to the line of vision, they stare at an object closely and fiercely. To take an instance, a princess out of great jealousy curses and glares at another princess who is sick in bed. In this case the former's fierce look is somehow produced, and at the next moment her eyes recover their former beauty. Such non-expressionism is, however, not given to all *No* masks, because it is the final excellence at which mask makers arrived through varied processes.

Kojo, by Kogyu Kiyomitsu, About 1370. Jo Means an Old Man, and Ko is the First Syllable of the Maker's Name. The Mask is in the Possession of the Kongo School.

I shall now consider the different kinds of *No* masks. *No* plays have been from olden times divided into pieces about Gods, Soldiers, Ladies, Mad Women and Monsters. The programme of *No* performances is made as a rule according to this division and order. In both the God and Soldier pieces, an old man of unknown character appears in the first scene and suggests that such and such characters will appear in the next scene. When a noble lady appears, her appearance is hinted at in the previous scene by a humble young woman. In this way one *No* play, in many cases, is divided into two scenes, and naturally the hero or heroine must have two masks. But there are some realistic *No* plays in which the heroes have no masks, and they are called unmasked pieces.



Chujo, by Kawachi Ieshige, About 1645. The Slightly Melancholy Face of a Young and Handsome Noble. Property of the Kongo School.

In making a programme, these pieces are substituted for the fourth Mad Woman or second Soldier pieces. The names of *No* masks number hundreds, but generally they are given a broader classification. The Gods' masks are Tobide, Tsurimanako, Tenjin, Raijin, Mikazuki, and Shintai, which are all representative. The common feature of these masks is that they have red mouths and big golden eyes which are widely open, and some of them are bright gold. They are so made as to express solemn dignity and awfulness. They express only the moment of extremely strong feeling, and for that reason are not suitable for long dramatic use. Another kind with similar expression are the masks of Monsters, the most representative of them being Beshimi, Shikami, Oni (or Demon), Shishiguchi (or Lion), Mohko (or Tiger), Nue, Yakan (or Fox), Hannya, Ja, Namanari, Hashihime, Yamauba, Ayakashi, Shinkaku, Taka, Sujiotoko, etc. These Monsters are either evil human spirits which have assumed the forms of Monsters or personified animals or, rarely, monsters equipped with supernatural character from the beginning. All of them are like the masks of Gods in that they show extreme feelings of wrath.

When I examine the engraving of these two kinds of masks, I find that although they are quite Japanised, yet there are some signs of the influence of the Gigaku and Bugaku. That these *No* masks are the oldest of all *No* masks is proved by trustworthy records. *Sarugaku-dangi* or "Talks about No-Plays", which bears the date 1430 A. D. (the third year of Kyoho), is a well known essay given orally by Seami, one of those who brought the *No* to its present perfection. Now from that essay, in which the names of mask-makers and masks are given, we can safely infer that the masks of Gods and Monsters, together with those of Old Men, were made in the earliest period. As in the case of the masks of the Monsters and Gods, the Old Men's masks are influenced by the masks of the Gigaku and Bugaku. The Masks of Old Men are known by the general name Jô. There are, besides them, peculiar masks called Okina. They have forms different from the ordinary *No* masks. We find their prototype in the Saisho-ro, a Bugaku mask. The most remarkable common feature of these two masks is that both have the lower part of the smiling face, with the lips as a border line, made separately and tied up with cords to the two cheeks. The symbolic cuts for the wrinkles of the forehead and of the cheeks, which are peculiar to the Okina masks, are also discovered in the Jô masks, so we can say that the Jô masks and Okina masks are also of the same period.

As regards the date of production of the above masks, I cannot tell exactly, but according to the *Kamen-pu* or "A List of No Mask-Makers" (published in 1797), which was written by Kita Kono, one of the famous modern *No* actors, the making of the Old Men's masks can be traced back to the Kamakura Period. And the masks of Gods and Monsters were made not much later.

It was in the Muromachi Period, the period of the Third Ashikaga Shogun Yoshimitsu, that the *No* assumed its perfect form as a play. So it is possible to conclude that the masks of the *No* had been completed by that time. Of the names of the *No* mask-makers given in Seami's essay, four were Seami's contemporaries, and the rest were men of preceding ages.

The true characteristics of No masks were displayed only when the masks of Ladies and Young Soldiers were made. The representative masks of Ladies are Ko-omote, Zoh, Waka-Onna, Magojiro, and Manbi, which represent young, beautiful and noble ladies, Masu-Kami representing young and beautiful but gloomy ladies, and Shakumi and Fukai representing older ladies. The last two masks are mother type. There are also Yase-Onna representing old and care-worn ladies, and Uba for the oldest women. Further minute classifications can be made with many other names.

The masks of young and handsome youths are Kantan-Otoko, Sumiyoshi-Otoko, Ima-Waka and Juroku (or Sixteen), which belong to the noble class. There are also Kasshiki and Doji. Jido and Shojo can be regarded as belonging to the same class. As to the middle aged men, there are Heita, Haya-Otoko and Awa-Otoko. For unique men, we can give Yorimasa, Shunkan and Kagekiyo. Kagekiyo's mask and those of Yoroboshi and Semimaru constitute a trio of blind masks.

Hannya, by Ishikawa Tatsuemon Shigemasa (About 1280), in the Possession of the Kongo School. The Hannya Stood for Wisdom in Buddhist Lore. But in the No, They Came to Stand for Jealousy and Indignation. They Have the Body of a Snake and the Face of a Demon.

The making of *No* masks became a recognized profession in the Tokugawa period, and there were a number of schools, with the Deme family as the centre. But with a few exceptions they were not talented artists; they simply engraved masks mechanically, using as models the masterpieces of their predecessors. Of all the *No* masks preserved today, there are only a few masterpieces deserving our unqualified praise, and most of the masterpieces are kept by *No* actors.

Illustration on Opposite Page

A No Mask, Yamauba, by Shakuzuru Yoshinari, About 1280. Face of Legendary Old Woman of the Mountain, about Whom One of the No Pieces is Constructed.

One of the Treasures of the Kongo School.

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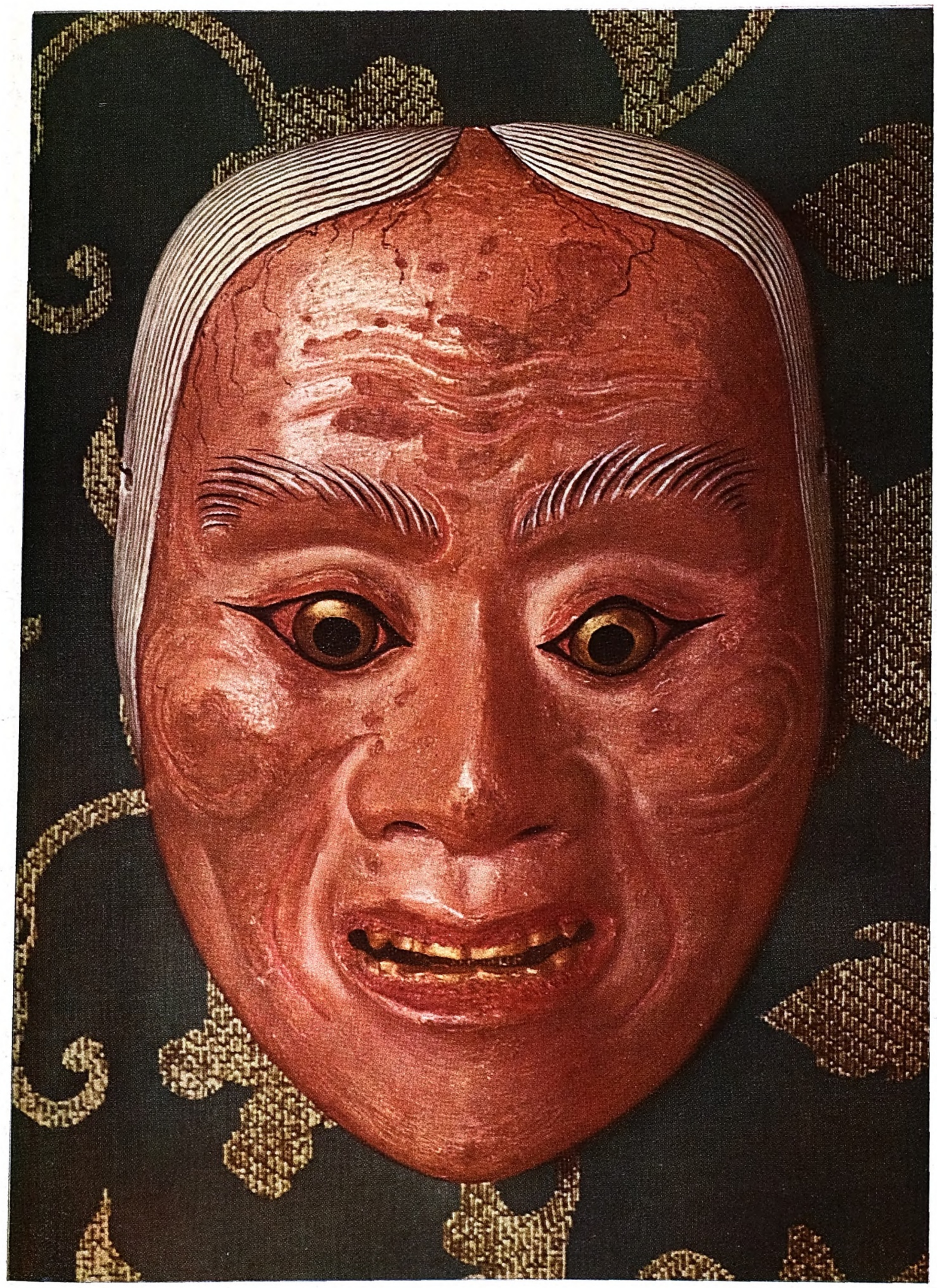

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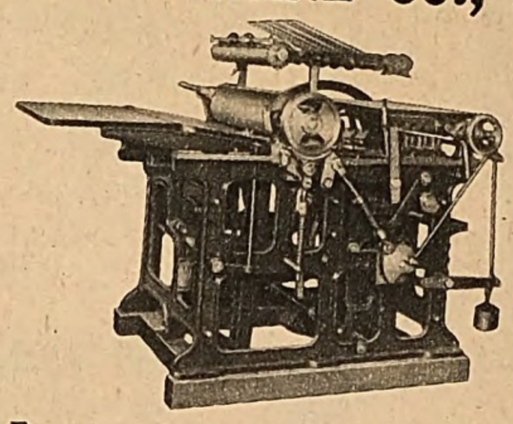

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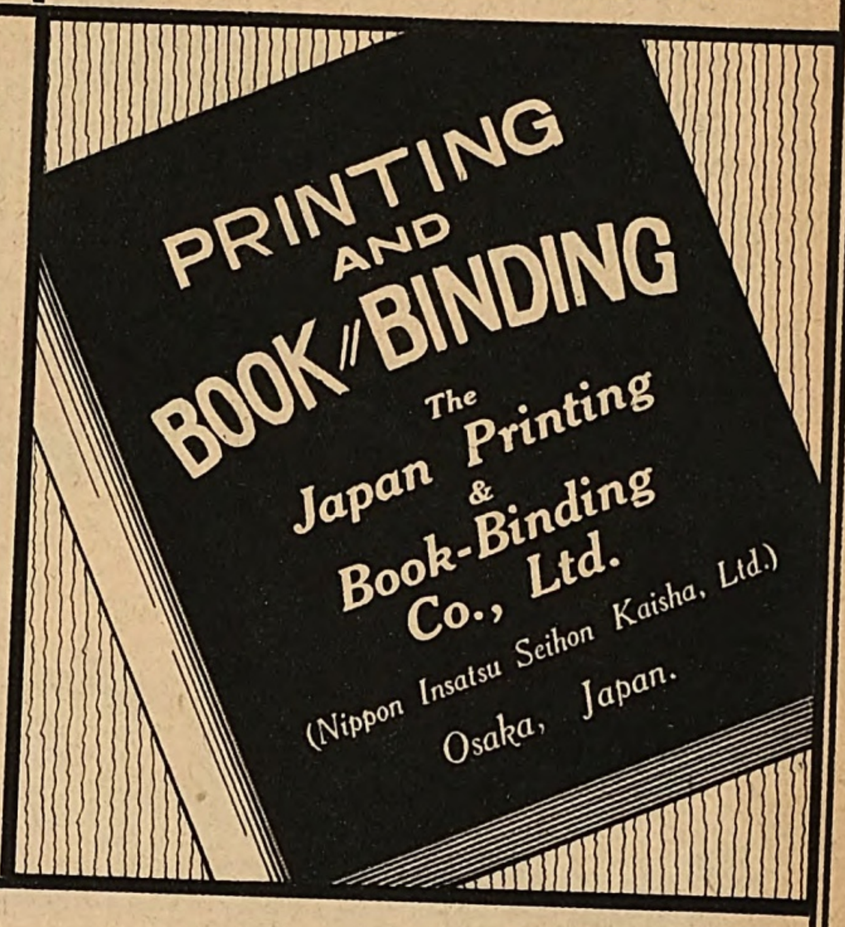

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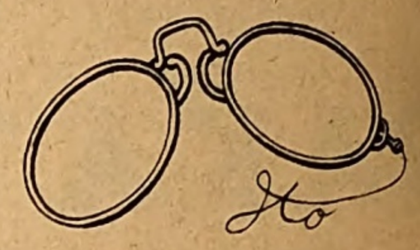

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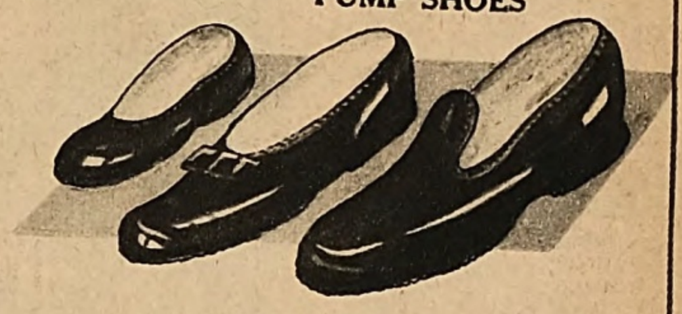

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Notes on Current Japanese Literature

By Soichi Oya

I. EARTHQUAKE DOLDRUMS AND THE RENAISSANCE

THE great earthquake of 1923 which shook Japan's cultural center had also a serious influence upon her literature. This attack from nature destroyed our old traditions and by accelerating the advance of the depression already existing in business and loosening the economic foundation of social life, threw Japanese literature, which had been at its zenith immediately after the world war, into the doldrums. But these doldrums were not without their value. They gave an opportunity for the thorough reviewing and revaluation of the literary property left us, with the result that literature enjoyed a renaissance prior to the reconstruction work in Tokyo and Yokohama. But when it had been revived, it was essentially different from that of several years ago. Therefore before we can explain its present phases properly, we must first have an analysis of the old trends which had existed in it to the time of the earthquake.

II. PRE-EARTHQUAKE LITERATURE

Of all the schools which had important places in modern Japanese literature the earthquake affected most adversely, even fatally, that school which was born of the old culture of Yedo represented by "Ukiyo-ye" (genre painting), the "Yoshiwara" (the oldest and most famous gay quarter in Japan) and "geisha-girls." This school of literature, the sentiments of which are based upon an old culture, overripe and corrupt after flourishing during the last two centuries, is necessarily decadent and hedonic and given to abnormal sexuality. The major literary trends before 1907 came under this school, the last representatives of which were Koyo Ozaki and his literary group called the "Genyusha." It was later painted over again fashionably by Kafu Nagai, who came into contact with the works of the French decadents of the last century, and seemed to have been given even a more important place in recent Japanese literature by Junichiro Tanizaki who grew into a unique and non-Asiatic writer of many talents under the influence of Oscar Wilde and Edgar Allan Poe. However, when the earthquake had destroyed its birthplace with its traditions and a new Americanized city had appeared, this school of literature was lost sight of by the reading public. Thus at present we have only two writers of the school—Mantaro Kubota, the "singer of elegies for the old capital under the new name of Tokyo," and Kyoka Izumi, one of the original members of the "Genyusha."

Next we come to a literary school which is not purely Japanese, but much influenced by the Chinese classics. It represents an ascetic literature which grows in a bed of that particular type of individualism, with an anti-social tendency, which has long prevailed among the middle-class people of Japan. Most Japanese writers, whether progressivists or ultra-admirers of Western civilization in their younger days, tend to lose positive concern with society and to turn to Asiatic nihilism when they have grown older. We find good examples in Roban Kota, who won the national respect as a master writer and great man of learning, and Roka Tokutomi, in his later years, who wrote the famous novel of family life, "Hototogisu" (The Cuckoo, in English translation "Namiko"). From such a mental environment evolved a literature of rambling notes. It received an unduly large support from the public until collectivist ideas displaced individualistic and the severe attacks of young literary critics deprived it of the significant place it had held in Japanese literature. The death in 1928, of Zenzo Kasai, who had enjoyed a higher reputation than he deserved for his diary-like short stories entirely destitute of composition, marked the end of this kind of literature.

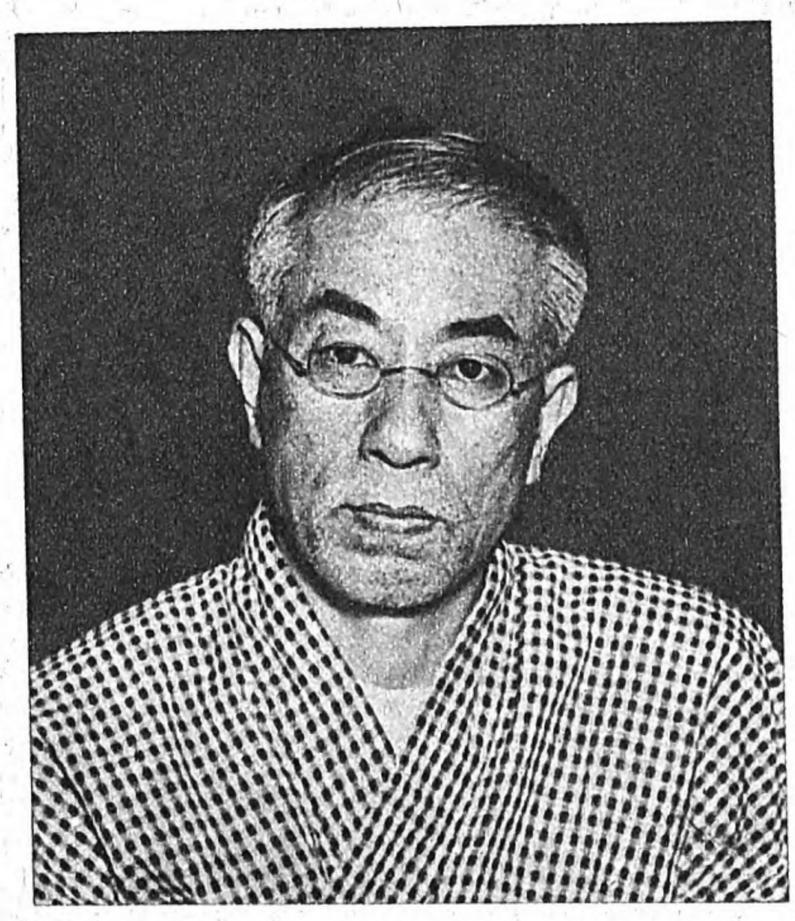
These schools of literature would have died a natural death without the earthquake, which only hastened their end. They, however, did not represent the main literary current of modern Japan; for it, there was something different which developed under the direct influence of Western literature. In 1885 Dr. Shoyo Tsubouchi, whose name is widely known as an authority on Shakespeare, first introduced into Japan in his work "Shosetsu Shinzui" (The Essentials of the Novel) the Western style of novel writing. In later years German and Austrian literature were brought in by Dr. Ogai Mori, German classical aesthetics by Chogyu Takayama, and Russian literature by Shimei Futabatei, thus bringing it about that Japan also became a successor to the traditions of European literature and launched forth into the international literary currents of the age. Every new trend or movement in European literature instantly flowed into Japan and had a bearing upon her literature in one way or another. Of all these movements naturalism in particular worked the most profound and deep-rooted effects upon Japanese literature, occupying the central position in it until recently.

It was about 1905 that naturalism began to make a stir in Japanese literature and that from this movement appeared such master-men as Doppo Kunigita, Toson Shimazaki and Katai Tayama, who were not only predecessors in the movement but first lifted Japanese literature up to a world footing. To the category of naturalist writers must be added the names of Shusei Tokuda and Hakucho Masamune—especially the former, who still stands prominent among literary men—but now their school is changing into a thing of the past, and offers nothing for the new age, though its writers deserve respect as cultivators of modern Japanese literature. Particularly, its recent followers are absorbed in depicting their own personal affairs and every-day family life.

The literature that ranks next to naturalism in its effect on Japanese literature and on intelligent people at large is humanitarianism, the representatives of which are Tolstoy, Dostievsky and Romain Rolland. When it came to Japan, the most influential humanitarian writers gathered together and issued an organ called "Shirakaba" (The White Birch). They were mostly descendants of feudal nobles, of whom Saneatsu Mushakoji and Takeo Arishima have left gigantic foot-prints. The former astonished the public with the bold and nearly unmodified manner of his expression, while naturalist literature was going into a decline, and later founded a utopia on a piece of land in Hyuga where young idealists of both sexes were rallied together. The latter plunged into fame, gaining a prominent place in the literary world for the grand fabrications and brilliant depiction in his works, and later caused a great sensation by distributing without pay a large tract of land among his tenant farmers because of his conviction in social justice. However, their "humanitarianism" was only an expression of their indirect rebellion as feudal nobles against the rising bourgeoisie, whose side was later taken up by them when the proletariat came to the front. In his later years Arishima was more and more affected by nihilism and anarchism and met his death in a love tragedy with a married woman in 1923 at Karuizawa. And Mushakoji, the other humanitarian named above, still continues in creative work, but seems to have lost his charm for his audience as the tenth anniversary of his utopia is about to come round.

The other schools held in high favor in the pre-earthquake literature are realism, represented by Naoya Shiga, the school of technics, represented by Ton Satomi (a younger brother of Takeo Arishima), and the school of sanity and culture, represented by Ryunosuke Akutagawa. However, the literature of realism, like that of naturalism, lost its power of enthusiasm and construction and turned to diary notes; the school of technics was hampered in development because of its over-adherence to technical matters, eventually putting on decadence and hedonism; and the school of sanity and culture, beginning with Soseki Natsume, had an enthusiastic audience among the intellectuals until the suicide of Ryunosuke Akutagawa, the last of its representatives, resulted in its total disappearance from the historical stage.

Here should be mentioned Kan Kikuchi, who seemed, for a while, to have the applause of the public all to himself when Japan had achieved the height of capitalistic development and her literature showed an unheard-of prosperity. In telling a story he disregarded established technique and put emphasis on themes and substance, expressing in a plain and outright manner his clever and fresh views on life. The contribution he made to Japanese literature, however, exists not so much in improving it in quality as in assimilating it to all the social classes. His novels were read by college professors and shop girls at once and were each met with renewed admiration. As a result, not only his books, but literary books in general, advanced amazingly in circulation, establishing themselves as an important commodity on the market. Later he himself organized a publishing company, the "Bungei Shunjū-sha," of which he is the president, and last year he ran in the general election for the Diet as a candidate of the "Shakai Minshu-to" (Social People's Party), but failed. Now he is an influential man of Japan, rather than a man of letters whose reputation is limited to literary circles. But his recent works have shown evi-



Toson Shimazaki, Poet and Novelist, Leader in the Naturalistic Movement

Hiroichiro Maedako, Proletarian Writer of the Bungei Sensen Group

Seikichi Fujimori, Proletarian Writer of the Senki Group

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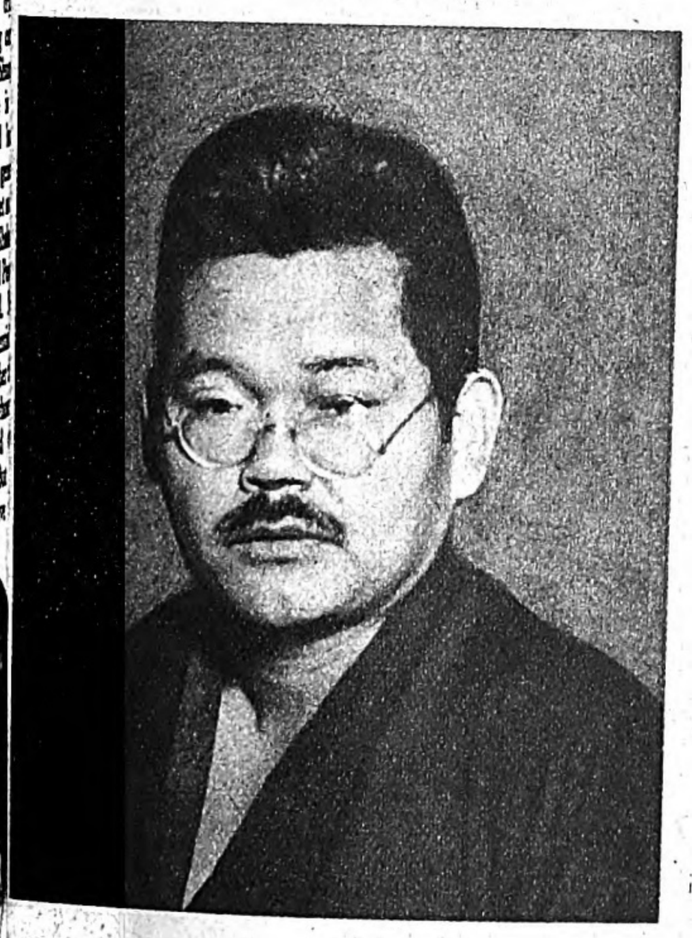
een completely dismembered; the ar writers have been shaken out of ne places they have long held, some nding refuge in cheap fiction, some eing abandoned by the reading pub-c, and only a few, such as Toson himazaki and Yuzo Yamamoto, still olding social support. But all that ese last-named men are doing is ublishing a few works which depend their mastery of technique and d ideology and which are apart from e literary currents of the age. They ve nothing in common with the ing generation of Japan.

There is a group of young novelists ading the so-called school of new nsationalism, who are heirs to the urgeois literature that is destined perish. Riichi Yokomitsu, the lead- of this school, has acquired a unique d spectacular place among younger erary men, thanks to his amazingly w observation and description. But s way of approaching literature has d no new development. A great any of his followers, being absorbed an abnormal style of depiction, ve given way before attaining suc-ss.

Besides, there are many of the young-generation who profess skepticism, sticism, nihilism or liberalism, all them being unsettled in ideas be-use they cannot get rid of their tit-bourgeois ideology.

IV. THE DAY OF THE PROLETARIAN WRITERS

Japan has been under the spell of actionaries ever since the nation-de arrest of Communists (a Com-unist party is illegal in Japan) first 1928 and next in 1929. But, ange as it may seem, the most ac-e rôle in present-day Japanese lit-



Kan Kikuchi, Novelist and Dramatist

ture is played by a number of new n who rally under the banner of proletariat. The proletarian vement in Japanese literature began h the advent of the working class llowing the world war, passing rough the doldrums immediately d arriving at the present, when this e of literature has been strenuously ived and has come to constitute dominant force in contemporary rature, overwhelming the old ces of bourgeois literature.

At first the movement was a cock- of democrats, liberals, humani-ians, anarchists, social-democrats d Marxists; but when it reappeared er the dropping off of the non-oletarian elements, it was divided o two antagonistic camps of Marx-ists and anarchists. Of the two, however, the anarchists were forced to practically give up their position in the working class movement after the Bolshevik revolution had been achieved in Russia. On the other hand, the Marxist camp rapidly swelled, and dialectical materialism was adopted not only by the van-guard elements of the working class but also by the intelligentsia in gen-eral as their "Weltanschauung." This could not, of course, be without con-sequence upon literature, in which the course of events progressed in such a way that at first the writers who felt contempt for the old literature or who were ambitious for literary fame but had not yet been able to make a name for themselves in literary circle were united in a group aiming at pro-letarian literature. To the group were later added a few excellent labour writers, who contributed much to

Miss Taiko Hirabayashi, Young Novelist of the Bungei Sensen Group

its literary influence. But differences in political opinions among the mem-bers finally brought a split to this literary body.

In Japan there are now two powerful literary bodies standing for Marx-ism. They are the writers rallying around the mag-azine "Senki" (War Banner) on the one hand and those writing for the "Bungei Sensen" (Litera-ry Front) on the other. Each of these organs is edited and published by its members for them-selves, entirely independ-ent of any bourgeois publisher, and has a circulation well over ten thousand. They are ac-quiring a still greater audience, though about every other issue is sup-pressed.

At the moment these two bodies are in sharp opposition to each other, the "Senki" group addres-sing the "Bungei Sensen" group as "social-democrats of the left wing," and the latter abusing the former as "infantile diseased left wingers." The "Senki" group belongs to the "All Japan League of Proletarian Artists," an organization with a membership of 500 and with literary, dramatic, movie, fine arts, and musical divisions. It is more radical in ideology, more active and greater in the number of its members and supporters than the "Bungei Sensen.'

The "Senki" has on its roll a pio-neer in Japanese proletarian literature named Seikichi Fujimori, who though of the intelligentsia, has had expe-rience living and working with la-bourers. He has gained prominence through several representative dramas —for instance, "Gisei" (Sacrifice) in which the suicide of Takeo Ari-shima already referred to is criti-cised; "Haritsuke Mozaemon" (Mo-zaemon the Crucified) treating of a peasants' insurrection in the feudal age; and "Naniga Kanojo wo So Sa-setaka" (What Drove Her to It?) which exposes the workings of capi-talist society through the life of a poor girl. These plays are sometimes pro-duced on the stage. Other promi-nent members are Ujaku Akita, who payed a visit to Russia last year; Teppei Kataoka, once a follower of the school of new sensationalism; Shi-geharu Nakano, an unusual prole-tarian poet; Tomoyoshi Murayama, who is more a stage director than a play-writer; Fusao Hayashi, popular as a writer of satirical short stories full of wit, a few of which have been translated into foreign languages; and Takiji Kobayashi, for whom the fu-ture promises much since his recent master-pieces, "March 15, 1928" (the day on which the first of the nation-wide arrests of Communists took place) and "Kani Kosen" (Crab Catching Boat), made hits.

Whereas most of the writers of the "Senki" group come of the intelli-gentsia, the "Bungei Sensen" has a good many who were born as workers, but their writings are too much affected by naturalism to acquire proletarian brightness. The most representative of this group is Hiroichro Maedako. His works are continental (not in the sense of "European") and energetic, and often associated in our minds with those of Upton Sinclair. He has recently published a part of a novel, "China", the rest of which is yet to be completed, and has received every kind of criticism for it. Other prom-inent writers of this group are Yobun Kaneko, who has the knack of ex-pressing in lyricism the resistance of the proletariat; Yoshiki Hayama, the writer of an epoch-making work in Japanese proletarian literature, "Im-baifu" (The Harlot) and also of a se-ries of stories of sailors; Taiko Hira-bayashi, the foremost of woman writ-ers of proletarian fiction; and Denji Kuroshima, who has produced stories of imperialist aggression from his own experience as a soldier with the Japanese troops in Siberia.

Now there is every reason to be-lieve that contemporary Japanese lit-erature is dominated by these two groups of writers. While the bour-geois writers, with a few exceptions, have fallen into intellectual inactivity, these proletarian writers are filling their organs with master-pieces and even publishing their writings in in-fluential capitalist journals.

V. CRITICS, TOO, PROLETARIAN

We will now take a glance at con-temporary literary critics. It is notice-able in this sphere too that critics professing loyalty to the proletariat have an overwhelming influence. All who ever fought against proletarian critics under the slogan of "art for art's sake" or who ever vigorously guarded bourgeois literature have with-drawn from the arena of literary crit-icism. At present those at the front are Hatsunosuke Hirabayashi, Itaru Nii, Korehito Kurahara, Seiichiro Ka-tsumoto and Suekichi Aono, who are all Marxists, with the exception of Nii, the anarchist.

Though only two seats in parlia-ment were won by the proletariat in the last general election, nearly all the prominent seats in literary crit-icism are occupied by the proleta-riat. An apprehension of this state of things in literature may furnish a key-note to foreign observers who are ambitious to understand not only present-day Japan, but the morrow.

Bird's Eye View of Literary Circles in Japan Today, by Kanzo Tsutsumi. Above Within the Wall are the Olden Conservative Writers. Outside the Wall, the Proletarian Writers, Divided into the Senki Group and the Bungei Sensen Group, are Engaged in Battle.

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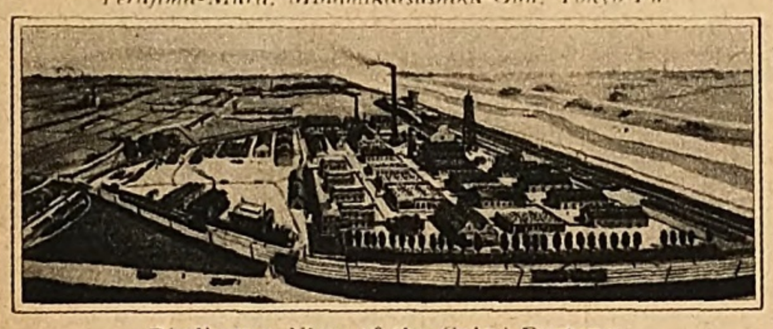

Bird's-eye View of the Sakai Factory

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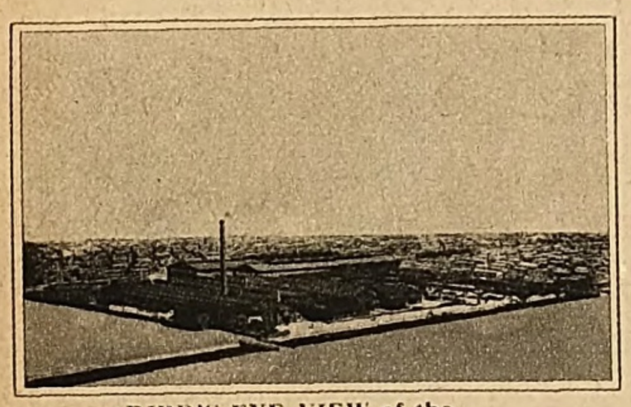

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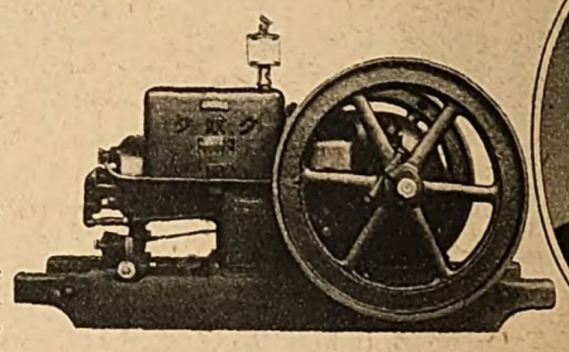

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Guide to Buddhist Statues

By Gemmyo Ono,
Professor at Koyasan University

JAPAN is a land of arts; she is particularly proud of her Buddhist arts. At Nara and Kyoto, ancient capitals of the country, specimens of her Buddhist arts are preserved. Not only our own people but foreign visitors who desire to appreciate the ancient art of Japan flock to Kyoto and Nara. They visit temples and museums where a bewilderingly large number of Buddhist statues and pictures are shown them. They listen to explanations given by their guides who point out a statue of the Asuka period and then a Heian period statue, and explain the characteristic features of each. But the statues and pictures are so numerous that it is impossible to remember and appreciate them all. Various types of Butsu and paintings pass before them in rapid succession, and there is not even time to notice them carefully. Finally these visitors purchase photographs and picture post cards to remind them of these art objects.

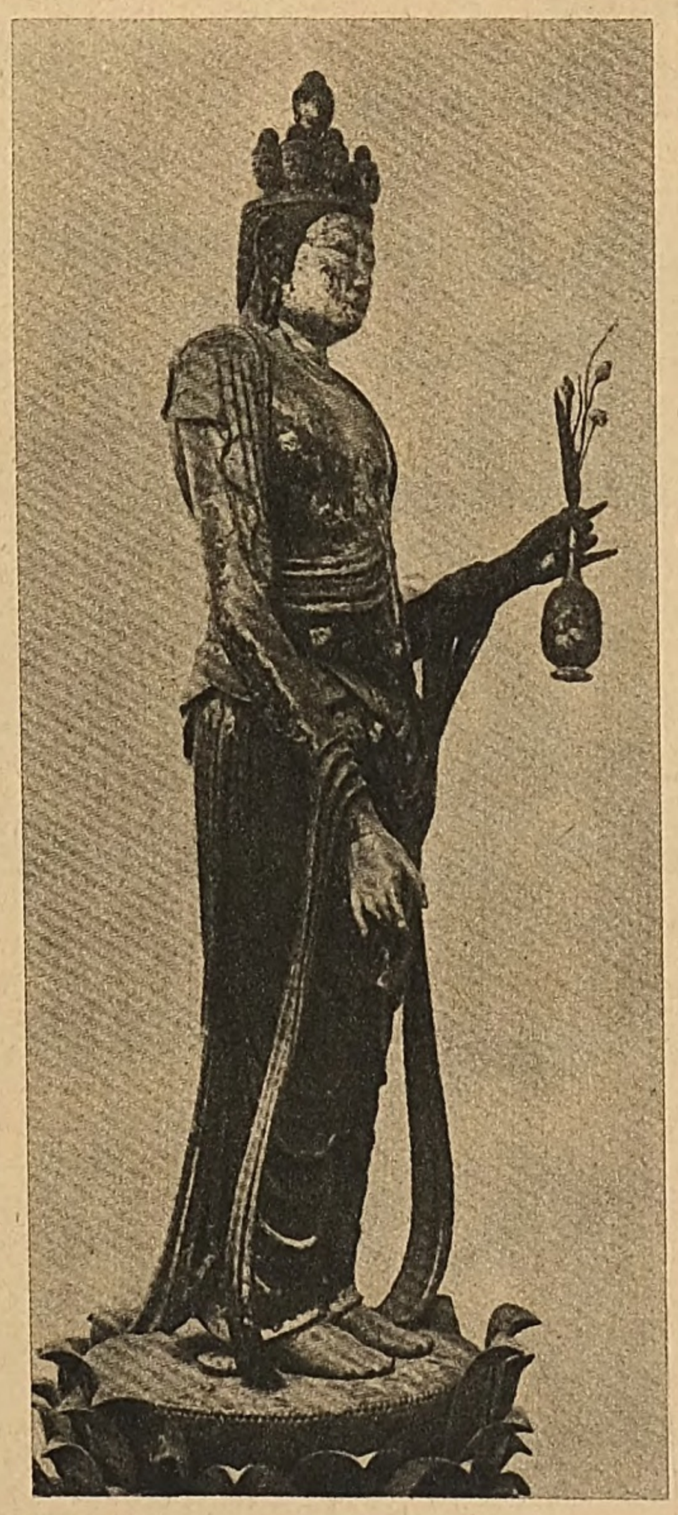
Even a Japanese who knows something of Buddhism will not be able to appreciate understandingly the ancient arts of Japan by making a passing pilgrimage to Kyoto and Nara and spending one or two weeks in viewing statues and pictures. Foreign visitors who come without any preparation and do not know our history, customs, and sentiments, or possess no knowledge of the teachings of Buddha, will fail to appreciate our arts by merely visiting temples and viewing statues and pictures. They may notice whether art objects are made of wood, stone, or clay; whether they are of lacquer, cast metals, paper, silk, embroideries, or other fabrics; whether they are made skilfully or crudely. These outward features may be readily comprehended, but, going a step further, if they are asked what a statue stands for, or a picture represents, it will be no easy task for them to answer. Then, again, though they may be able to tell the names of statues and the subjects of paintings, it will be impossible for them to appreciate the Buddhist art, decidedly the flower of Japanese arts, if they do not understand the religious significance of what they see.

Though I am not given sufficient space to explain Buddhist art fully, I will give some simple guides for those who intend to spend only a week or two in viewing ancient art objects in Kyoto and Nara. Before doing so, it is necessary to say first something about the historical development that brought about these objects of art, and then to give some hints about viewing and identifying Buddhist statues and pictures.

In 552 A.D. Buddhism was first brought to Japan (another opinion holds that it was in 538), but it was after 592 that the faith was actually embraced by our people. In dividing the historical periods of Buddhism in Japan, there are many diversified opinions, but I suggest the following divisions:

Asuka Period (593-709)
—Suiko Period (593-671)
—Hakuho Period (672-709)
Nara Period (710-793)
—Tempio Period
Heian Period (794-1183)
—Konin Period (794-857)
—Fujiwara Period (858-1183)
Kamakura Period (1194-1330)
Yoshino-Muromachi Period (1331-1572)
—Nanbokucho Period (1331-1393)
—Ashikaga Period (1394-1572)
Azuchi-Momoyama Period (1573-1602)
—Oda-Toyotomi Period
Yedo Period (1603-1867)
—Tokugawa Period

The Asuka period means the time when the Capital, the administrative centre, was at Asuka, south of the present City of Nara. The Empress Suiko and the Emperors of the period had their Palaces at Asuka, with the exceptions of the Emperor Tenchi and a few others who ruled the country from other places, and Asuka was the centre of the national culture and civilization. The Asuka period began in 593 when the Empress Suiko was enthroned, and lasted until March, 710, when the Imperial Capital was moved to Nara, continuing for a period of about 118 years. The period is, again, divided into the Suiko and Hakuho periods.



Eleven-Faced Kwannon, an Image of the Tempyo Period, from the Temple Shorin-ji, Nara

The first Buddhist temple built in Japan was the Gwango-ji, erected in 596, but this temple is now utterly ruined and does not show any trace of its former grandeur. A statue of Buddha made before 605, is commonly called Asuka-no-Daibutsu (Great Buddha of Asuka), but it now retains only the original head, having lost its halo and pedestal, and the body having been repaired. This statue is now placed in a small temple called Ango-in. Of temples built in the Suiko period, there still remain, besides the Gwango-ji, the following:

Horyu-ji (Ikaruga-dera) (Nara)
Shitenno-ji (Osaka)
Daian-ji (originally named Kudarano-Odera) (Nara)
Gufuku-ji (originally named Kawara-dera) (Yamato)

The Gwango-ji, Daian-ji, and Gufuku-ji were called the Three Great Temples of Asuka, but these were all removed to Nara when the Imperial Capital was transferred to the latter city in 710.

The principal temples built in the Hakuho period were:

Yakushi-ji (Nara)
Hase-dera (Yamato)
Kofuku-ji (Nara)

The Yakushi-ji was originally built at Asuka, but was moved to the present site in the Nara period.

The Nara period represents an era covering about 83 years after the transfer of the capital to that city, and of temples built in the period, there are:

Todai-ji (Nara)
Saidai-ji (Nara)
Toshodai-ji (Nara)
Shin-Yakushiji (Nara)

The Great Buddha of the Todai-ji was erected in 752 when Buddhism attained the height of popularity and development in Japan and Buddhist art also made signal progress.

The Heian period begins with the transfer of the capital to Kyoto in 794, and lasts about 390 years. The period is subdivided into the Konin and Fujiwara periods.

Of temples erected in the Konin period, the following may be mentioned:

To-ji (Kyoto)
Enryaku-ji (Hieisan)
Kongobu-ji (Koyasan)
Murou-dera (Yamato)
Kwansin-ji (Kawachi)
Daikaku-ji (Saga, Kyoto)
Daigo-ji (Yamashiro)
Ninna-ji (Kyoto)

Among temples constructed in the Fujiwara period are:

Kwanju-ji (Yamashina)
Joruri-ji (Yamashiro)
Byodo-in (Uji)
Chuson-ji (Hiraizumi)
Rengeo-in (Sanjusangen-do, Kyoto)

Then, the following may be mentioned as those built in the Kamakura and Muromachi periods:

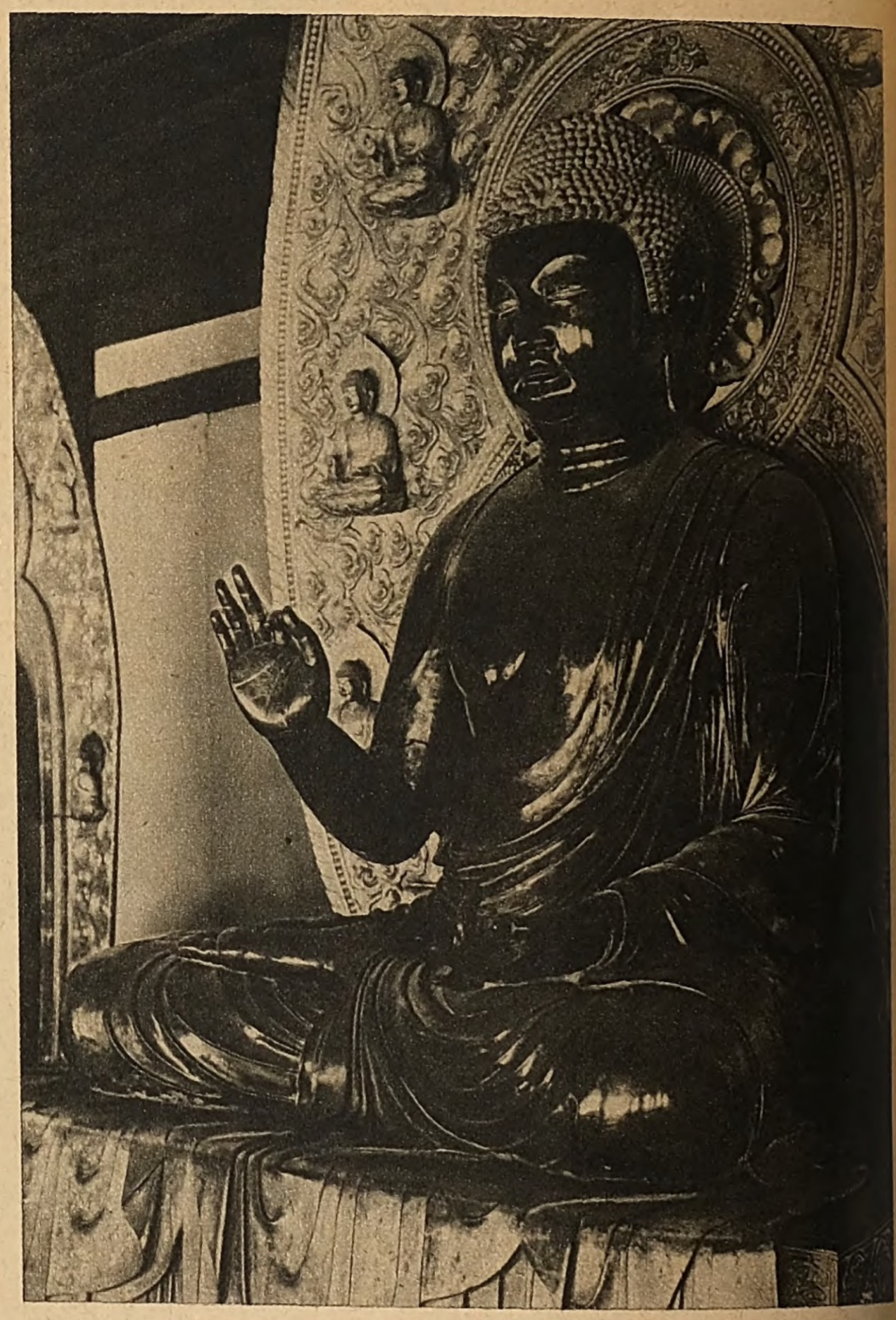


Image of Yakushi-Nyorai, in the Temple Yakushi-ji, Nara, Workmanship of the Hakuho Period

Kennin-ji (Kyoto)
Tofuku-ji (Kyoto)
Nanzen-ji (Kyoto)
Tenryu-ji (Kyoto)
Myoshin-ji (Kyoto)
Kencho-ji (Kamakura)
Engaku-ji (Kamakura)

The following are the principal temples erected during the Azuchi-Momoyama and Yedo periods:

Hongan-ji (Kyoto)
Manpuku-ji (Obakusan, Uji)

During these periods, Buddhism and Buddhist arts in Japan underwent changes and developments. During the Asuka period, or the Suiko period particularly, the continental Buddhist culture of the sixth century and before was brought here through Korea, and the statues of this period belong to the same type as those of Yunkang and Lungmen of China. The sect most widely believed in in Japan then was the San-ron-Shu. But in the Hakuho period, namely the latter half of the Asuka period, Ja-

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pan came into contact with the Chinese Buddhist culture of the 7th century, which contained many Indian characteristics introduced by Hsuan-chuang and others. The new sect of Hoso-shu became popular, but generally in the Asuka period, the Mahayana Buddhism of India was believed in by the Japanese people of all classes, from princes down to common folks. The objects of worship were Yakushi-butsu(Bhaisajyaguruvaidurya-tathagata), Shaka-butsu (Sakyamuni), Amida-butsu (Amitabha), and Miroku-butsu (Maitreya); Kwannon-bosatsu (Avalokitesvara), Kokuzo-bosatsu (Akasagarbha), and other Bosatsu; Bon-ten (Brahma), Taishaku-ten (Sakra-devendra), Shitenno (Four Maharajika), and Kichijo-tennyo (Sri or Mahasri).

Then, in the Nara period, the Buddhist culture of China of the 8th century was brought in, and the arts of this period did not show so much Indian influence as those of the previous period, and were purely of the type of the Tang period. It was in the Tang period that the Buddhist culture and arts reached perfection in China, and Japan was greatly influenced by China. Japan became able to build magnificent temples and make fine statues. The Daibutsu of Nara was cast during this period by the Imperial Family with national funds. The temples and art objects produced in those days occupy the foremost rank in the country. To the former two sects were then added the Kegon-shu and Risshu. And Ruhana-butsu (Vairocana), Senju-kwannon (Sahasrabhuja-avalokitesvara), Juichimen-kwannon (Ekadasamukha), Fukukensaku-kwannon (Amoghapasa), Bakwannon (Hayagriva), Kwato-kongo (Acchusman), and Kujyaku-myo-o (Maha-mayuri) came to be worshipped by the followers of Buddha.

The Konin period, the first part of the Heian period, brought the Chinese Buddhist culture of the 9th century, and the two sects of Tendai and Shingon were introduced in this period as distinct sects for the first time. Particularly the diffusion of the Shingon sect greatly influenced Buddhist faith and arts in Japan. The Shingon sect introduced new images of worship that had not been known before, such as Dainichi-nyorai (Maha-vairocana), Kongo-satta (Vajra-sattva), Fugen-enmei (Vajramogha-samaya-sattva), and other Bosatsu; Fudo (Acalanatha), Aizen (Raga-raja), and other Myo-o; and Marishi (Marici), Kwang-mo (Hariti) and other Ten. For worshipping these new images it was necessary to make statues and Mandala and to make offerings according to various religious ceremonies. These ceremonies required large expenditures, and thus the Buddhism of this period found its converts mostly in aristocratic circles. This tendency naturally caused a notable development in Buddhist arts.

Some of the Bosatsu Carved on the Petals of the Lotus on Which the Great Buddha of the Todai-ji, Nara, Sits

In the Fujiwara period, the latter part of the Heian period, the official intercourse with China ceased, and the introduction of Chinese culture into Japan also came to an end. Consequently, in this period, Japanese Buddhism and Buddhist arts came to make their own developments, independent of Chinese influences. But in substance, they mainly followed the lines of the culture of the previous period. Only as a new thought movement, the Jodokyo sect became popular, resulting in the introduction of the picture of Raiko, which gave a new and strange feature to Japanese Buddhist arts.

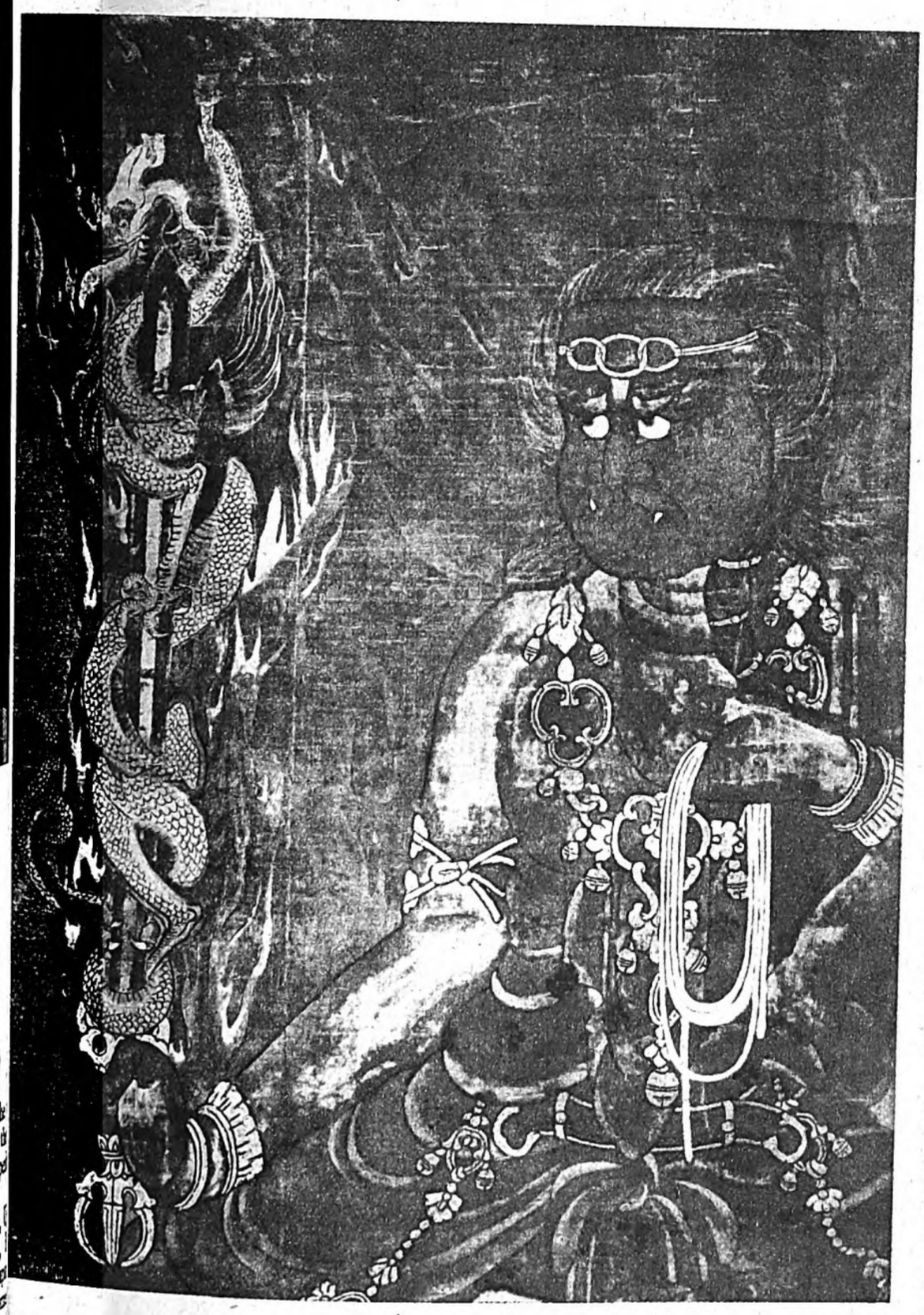
In the Kamakura period, the Jodokyo was widely spread among the people, and also the Zen-shu was introduced from China, causing a marked change in the religious thought of the nation. The Jodo and Zen sects unlike the Shingon and other earlier sects, did not require Buddhist statues and pictures. The Jodo taught the necessity of repeating the name of Buddha, while the Zen only required its worshippers to sit down in meditation and obtain enlightenment. They are extremely simple Buddhist teachings for common people, and they prevented the development of Buddhist arts which, as result, greatly deteriorated. The art of painting picture-rolls telling the history of temples and the lives of the founders of various sects, and of drawing simple portraits in black and white developed in this period, but the Buddhist arts have kept on declining since the Muromachi period.

Now, I will give a few hints on judging and distinguishing between the numerous statues in the temples of Kyoto and Nara. First I will give the different types and characteristics of Buddhist statues, before telling how these statues are to be identified.

The images worshipped in Buddhism are generally called Butsu-zo, but they are mainly divided into Butsu (Buddha), Bosatsu (Bodhisattva), Myo-o (Vidya-raja), and Ten (Deva). Butsu (Buddha) are enlightened persons who penetrated into the truth of the universe and reached the state of supreme spiritual perfection. Among Butsu, there are Past Butsu, Present Butsu, and Future Butsu. Nendo-butsu (Dipamkara), and Taho-butsu (Prabhuta-ratna) are Past Butsu. Yakushi-butsu (Bhaisajyaguruvaidurya-tathagata) who is in Joruri-sekai in the east, Ashuku-butsu (Aksobhya-tathagata) in Myoki-sekai in the east, Amida-butsu (Amitabha) in Goku-raku-sekai (Sukhavati) in the west, and Rushana-butsu (Vairocana) sitting on the lotus pedestal of Rengezo-sekai are Present Butsu. The Jodo (Sukhavati) of Shaka (Sakyamuni) is, according to one theory, the Ryoju-sen (Gridhrakuta), the mountain where Shaka preached Hoke-kyo (Saddharmapundarika), but there is another opinion saying that there is a land called Musho in the west where the Jodo exists. Miroku-bosatsu (Maitreya), then, is at present preaching in Tosotsu-ten (Tusita), but after 5,670,000,000 years, will be reborn in this universe and become a Buddha. This Bosatsu, therefore, is called especially Miroku-butsu, and is the Future Buddha.

Bosatsu (Bodhisattva) are those who are striving to gain supreme knowledge, and also practicing religious austerities in order to save all living beings. Among the numerous Bosatsu, those who have almost completed religious austerities, and will soon become Butsu and rule Jodo are called Husho-bosatsu. Kwannon-bosatsu and Seishi-bosatsu (Maha-sthamaprapta) are Husho-bosatsu of Amida's Goku-raku-sekai; Nikko-bosatsu (Suryoprabha) and Gwakko-bosatsu (Candraprabha) are Husho-bosatsu of Joruri-sekai of Yakushi-butsu (Bhaisajyaguruvaidurya-tathagata); Miroku-bosatsu (Maitreya) is Husho-bosatsu to Shaka-butsu of this world. Monju-bosatsu (Manjusri) and Fugen-bosatsu (Samantabhadra) are said to be Bosatsu who have come from other Jodo.

Monju Bosatsu and Fugen Bosatsu, from a Picture of the Buddha's Entrance into Nirvana, Dating from the Fujiwara Period, in the Temple Kongobu-ji, Mt. Koya



Picture of Fudo-myo-o, Dating from the Konin Period, in the Myo-o-in, Mt. Koya, Wakayama Prefecture

Myo-o (Vidyaraja) are Butsu or Bosatsu who have assumed fierce appearances in order to subdue evil persons who are stubborn and hard to enlighten and lead them to justice. Fudo-myo-o (Acalanatha) is the transformation of Dainichi-nyorai (Maha-vairocana), Gozanze-myo-o (Trailokya-vajra) is the transformed Ashuku-butsu (Aksobhya-tathagata), and Daiitokumyo-o is Amida (Amitabha) in a changed form.

Ten (Deva) includes all heavenly and earthly kami who are converted to Buddhism, and support and protect Buddhism, such as Bonten (Brahma), Taishaku (Sakra-devendra), Tamon (Vaisravana), Jikoku (Dhrtarastra), Zojo (Virudhaka), Kwomoku (Virupaksa), Kichijo-ten (Mahasri), Benzai-ten (Sarasvati), Kishimo (Hariti), Kwangi-ten (Vinahaka) and Marishiten (Marici).

Statues of these Butsu, Bosatsu, Myo-o, and Ten are all commonly called Butsu-zo (Buddhist statues). For distinguishing the numerous statues, it is necessary to notice their shapes, clothing, ornaments, pedestals, haloes, gestures, things carried, and various other features.

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Of all the features of statues, the head and clothing are most easily recognized. Speaking of the statues of Butsu, for instance, the top of the head is prominent, and this swollen part is called Nikke (Usnisa); the head is covered with curled coils of hair (Rahotsu); the upper part of Butsu's body is covered with Kesa(Kasaya), a large piece of cloth made up of a number of small pieces. Some Butsu have both shoulders covered, but mostly the right shoulder and arm are bared. Around the lower body, Kun (Nivasana), a piece of cloth is tied with a cord. Butsu statues have no ear-rings, necklaces, finger-rings, armletts, anklets, or other ornaments. Since Shaka, Amida, and all the others called Butsu are represented in the above mentioned form, and as they look similar, they have to be distinguished by their hands and other characteristics.

But those of the Asuka and Nara periods have their right hands opened with the palms facing front and the fingers pointing upwards, a form called Semui-in, and the left hands opened, the palms facing front but fingers pointing downward, a gesture called Segwan-in or Yogwan-in. The statues of the Asuka and Nara periods are of similar form, and are hard to distinguish, but after the latter part of the Nara period and the Heian period, statues with different positions of the hands appeared. Yakushi-butsu came to hold Yakuko (medicine-pot). The statues of Amida, also, came to be made with different positions of the hands: the Jo-in gesture signifying Sanmai (meditation); the Tenborin gesture, preaching in Gokuraku; and the Raiko gesture, welcoming pious persons. These different gestures have made it easy to distinguish and identify statues. The only exception to the rule is the statue of Dainichi-nyorai, which is made in the form of Tennin (angel), with hair tied up, and wearing a crown, angelic light clothing, ear-rings, necklaces, armlets, anklets, and other ornaments. Then, there are the Dainichi-nyorai of Kongokai, and the Dainichi-nyorai of Taizokai. The one with the hand in the Chiken-in gesture is Dainichi-nyorai of Kongokai, and the other with the hand in the Hokaijo-in gesture is Dainichinyorai of Taizokai.

Bosatsu statues have the hair tied up, the upper body covered with Ten-e (heavenly-robe) a colored garment and the lower part with Kun (Nivasana). A crown, ear-rings, finger rings, armlets, anklets, and other ornaments are worn. Generally all Bosatsu are in this form, and statues made in the Asuka period are difficult to identify as none have any distinctive characteristics. But among the Bosatsu statues commonly seen, many can be easily distinguished by their crowns, articles carried in their hands, pedestals, and other features. For instance, the crown of Kwannon-bosatsu has a small statue of Butsu; Seishi-bosatsu's crown has a treasure-jar; Kokuzo-bosatsu wears Gobutsu-kwan (five Buddha crown) having five small Buddha statues on it; on the crown of Miroku-bosatsu is found Gorinto (five ring tower). Statues may also be identified by articles carried in their hands; Monju-bosatsu has the Sutra in the left hand and a sword in the right. Pedestals also indicate the character of statues; Monju-bosatsu sitting on a lion and Fugen-bosatsu on an elephant can be easily distinguished.

Of Kwannon-bosatsu, there are, again, Senju-kwannon (thousand armed), Juichimen-kwannon (eleven faced), Nyoirin-kwannon (cintamani), Fukukensaku-kwannon (Amoghapada), Jundei-kwannon (Cunde), Bato-kwannon (Hayagriva), Fugenenmei-kwannon (Vajramogha-samaya-sattva), and others which have 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 16, 18, 32, 40, or 1,000 arms. Then some have 3, 4, 11, 27 or more faces. Thus although being of the same Bosatsu, statues have different numbers of faces and arms. Senju-kwannon (thousand-hand Kwannon) with a thousand arms, and Juichimen-Kwannon (eleven faced Kwannon) with eleven faces are widely known. But Fukukensaku-kwannon has eight arms, while Kokuzo-bosatsu also has eight arms: in other words different Bosatsu may have the same number of arms. Then, again, there are two armed Nyoirin-kwannon and six-armed Nyoirin-kwannon, showing that the same Bosatsu often has a different number of arms. In these cases, they can be distinguished only by close observation of hand gestures, articles carried, and other features.

But there are some exceptional cases. Jizo-bosatsu (Ksitigarbha) is in the form of a priest, with a shaved head and wearing a Kesa (Kasaya). Miroku-bosatsu has curled hair and wears a Kesa just like a Butsu, when it is called a Butsu. Monju-bosatsu is in the shape of a boy with hair tied up in knots, and by noting the number of hair knots, Ikke-Monju (one knot Monju), Goke-Monju (five knot Monju), Rokke-Monju (six knot Monju), and Hakke-Monju (eight knot Monju) may be easily identified. Among modern statues, there are some called Chigo-Monju (child-form) which wear Chinese dresses. Hannya-bosatsu appears quite different from other Bosatsu, because of its peculiar clothing called Katsuma-e (work-cloth). Bato-kwannon is also called Bato-myo-o, and has the head of a white horse on its head and an angry expression.

The statues of Myo-o invariably have an expression of anger. Their hair is not generally tied, but sometimes bristles to indicate anger; Kinsenkwan (gold band crown) is worn over the hair; often the hair is braided and hangs down by the left ear as in the case of Fudo-myo-o. Only a short Kun coming from the loin to the thigh is worn, and angelic clothing is never used. Their ornaments are also different from those of Bosatsu. Sometimes snakes are used to cover the whole body, instead of necklaces. The statues of Myo-o are also made according to set rules and may be identified by remembering their respective characteristics. Fudo-myo-o, for example, has the braided hair coming down by the left ear; holds a cord in the left hand and a sword in the right; sits on a stone seat; and from the back rises a great flame of fire called the Fire of Karura-en (garuda-formed flame). Gozanze-myo-o (Trailokya-vajra) has three faces and six arms, and stamps upon Daijizai-ten (Mahesvara) and Uma-hi with its feet. Gundari-myo-o (Kundali) has one face, three eyes, and eight arms, and uses snakes for its necklaces. Daiitoku-myo-o (Daiitoku) rides on an ox and has three faces, six arms, and six legs. Kongoyasha-myo-o is easily identified as it has three faces and six arms; five eyes on the front of the face, and three eyes each on the sides of the face. Kujaku-myo-o rides on a peacock, but is in the shape of Bosatsu. Aizen-myo-o can also be easily told as it has a crown of a lion. But one Myo-o often takes different shapes, and in such cases it is impossible for ordinary persons to distinguish between them.

The statues of deities are widely different because there are heavenly deities and earthly deities, as well as devils and animals; some are male and others female; some are old and others young. Some have tied-up hair, while others have loose hair. Then their dresses are noticeably different, some wearing angelic costumes while others wear armor. Some heavenly deities wear Chinese dresses, but others are naked. Although their shapes and clothing are so widely diversified, they may be identified to some extent by observing their forms, their clothing, the articles carried, and the pedestals. Bishamon-ten (Vaisravana), for instance, dons armor, carries a To (stumpa), and a treasure-stick. Kichijo-tennyo is in the form of an angel and holds a gem in her hand. Benzai-ten (Sarasvati) is made in two forms, one with two arms, and another with eight arms. The Two-armed Benzai-ten holds a Biwa (lute), while the Eight-armed Benzai-ten carries a bow and arrows, a sword, a ring and other things. Kishimo (Hariti) carries a baby in the left hand and Kichijokwa (pomegranate fruit) in the right, and is surrounded by three or five children. Marishi-tennyo (Marici) has three faces and eight arms, and rides on a wild boar. Kwangi-ten (Ganapati or Vinayaka) which is commonly called Shoden, represents a male and a female, each having an elephant head and a human body, embracing each other. Taishaku-ten rides on a white elephant, carrying Kongosho (Vajra). Bon-ten is four-faced and four-armed, and rides on a white goose. Kwa-ten (Agni) is an old man with four arms and rides on a sheep. Sui-ten (Varuna) has a dragon on its head, and holds a sword and a rope of snakes, riding on a tortoise. Nitten (Aditya or Surya) rides on a five-horse cart, holding the sun. Gwatten (Candra or Soma) holds the moon and rides on a five-goose cart. These can all be readily recognized by these particular characteristics. But there are many other Tenshin, some of which have many different forms, and unless the individual characteristics of each are fully understood, it is difficult to identify them rightly.

Then, the main statues placed in temples may also be identified by the kinds of Bosatsu or Ten placed at their sides. If, on the two sides of a main statue, are found Kwannon and Seishi-bosatsu, the Butsu is Amida. When Monju-bosatsu and Fugen-bosatsu, as well as the Four Tenno, are placed as side statues, the main statue is Shaka-butsu. Again, if twelve kami wearing armor are found, the main statue is Yakushi-butsu.

There are many other important points to be remembered in identifying Buddhist statues, haloes and pedestals being very important. When statues have both haloes and nimbuses, generally they are Butsu. Some Bosatsu have also haloes and nimbuses, but generally speaking they have haloes alone. Especially when Bosatsu are placed as side statues, they have only haloes. Myo-o and Tenshin also have haloes, which are, however, in different shapes from those of Butsu or Bosatsu. Thus, by looking at the shapes of haloes, Butsu, Bosatsu, Myo-o, and Tenshin may be distinguished.

The seats for statues are generally lotus blossoms. But those of the Asuka period have Tenne-za, seats made of angelic clothing. Lotus seats have different numbers of petals. Rushana-butsu sits on Senyoza (thousand petal seat), and Dainichi-nyorai (eight petal seat). The number of lotus petals is decided by the Sutra. Then, there are seats made of lions, horses, elephants, peacocks, and other birds and animals. From these birds and animals, the identity of statues may also be made.

Each period of our Buddhist history has given Buddhist art its special characteristics, according to the evolution and progress of the faith. The Asuka period, when ordinary Mahayana Buddhism was generally believed in, produced many master-pieces in statues of Butsu and Bosatsu. In the Heian period, which highly popularized esoteric Buddhism, magnificent statues representing strange shapes of Myo-o that had not been known in the previous period were made. In the Fujiwara and Kamakura periods, the Jodo sect became popular, resulting in the production of representative pictures of Raiko—Amida's welcome to the pious.

One of the Twelve Armoured Companions of Yakushi-butsu, Workmanship of the Kamakura Period

Image of Kichijo-Tennyo, Dating from the Fujiwara Period, in the Temple Joruri-ji, Kyoto Prefecture

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(Continued from Page 50)

SOCIAL MOVEMENTS IN JAPAN

strikes and 18,019 participants over the figures for the corresponding period of last year.

With a few exceptions, the strikes this year so far have been in the smaller factories, and have been carried out by labourers who are not organized. The revised Factory Law came into force on July 1 this year, and thereby night work was ended for women and children. When the day for the enforcement of the revised Factory Law was drawing near, women operatives at some mousseline and cotton spinning mills struck work in protest against the decrease in their actual earnings that would come about from the abolition of night work. They practically all ended in failure on the part of the strikers to obtain their demands, as have most strikes in recent years.

Strikes are increasing in number of late, but considering the nature of the disputes, we find that a considerable change has taken place in the last ten years. Now the aggressive attitude of the employers toward their employees is the feature of the strikes.

C. Relation to the International Labour Movement

The social movements of one country in recent years have more or less close relations with international movements of like nature, except in very special cases. This is especially the case with the labour movements, which receive direct influence from abroad, and also influence like movements in other countries.

What constitute the two main currents of world labour movements are the Second and the Third Internationals, which are, likewise, the chief influence in the labour movements in this country. Thus the labour unions of the left wing support Moscow, while those of the right wing support Amsterdam. All organized bodies or societies that have evident Communistic propensities are prohibited by law, but some labour unions of the left are secretly carrying on movements of a Communistic nature. Of course they are very few in number. The right bodies believe in parliament. They also send their delegates to the International Labour Conference, which the left bodies repudiate, and it is these right bodies that are gaining strength in this country. They comprise the largest membership of the labour unions.

D. International Labour Organization and Labour Legislation

In labour legislation this country is far behind the western countries, and our labour problems are below the level of those handled at the International Labour Organization. The delegates of our government, our capitalists and our labour have paticipated in the International Labour Conference since its first meeting in 1919. For some years these delegates were appointed by the government. The labour unions were not yet recognized as having the capacity to elect their own delegates. It was through repeated warnings at the general meeting of the International Labour Conference to abide by the provisions of the Peace Treaty, representations to the government by the labour associations, and public opinion that the government at last agreed to the labour unions' sending their own delegates to the International Labour Conference from its sixth general meeting in 1924.

Since its first general meeting in 1919, so far 26 draft conventions and 25 recommendations have been adopted by the International Labour Conference, and Japan so far has ratified only nine of these conventions. Japan takes exception to the convention for the limitation of working hours on the ground that from the racial point of view conditions in this country are different from those in others. Such exception is beneficent to the employers, but is not for the good of labourers.

Generally speaking, however, much of the labour legislation in this country has been stimulated by the decisions adopted by the International Labour Conference. Thus the revision of the Factory Law, the enactment of the Health Insurance Law, and the abolition of night work for women and children are largely due to the decisions of the International Labour Conference. Among needed labour laws not yet enacted in this country are a labour union law, a minimum wage law, a superannuation insurance law, an unemployment insurance law, an accident relief law, etc.

Such legislation aims at the protection of the labouring class, and such social problems as housing, medical relief and education for labourers, can not be solved by simply relying upon the actions of the International Labour Organization. The labourers themselves must initiate movements, and try to create public opinion in favour of their claims. In this respect the activities of the labour representatives

Dr. Hajime Kawakami, Former Professor of Kyoto Imperial University, Who is Helping Mr. Oyama in His Efforts to Form a New Labourers' and Farmers' Party

in the House of Representatives are looked upon with much expectation.

IV. PEASANTS' MOVEMENT

A. General Outline

Farmers make up about half of the population of the country. Farming is usually a small-scale family enterprize conducted by peasant proprietors or tenants. Farming on a large scale such as is met with in western countries is exceedingly rare. Consequently there are few farm labourers. Agrarian problems, therefore, center in the dispute between the landlords and tenants. The peasants have formed unions, and these have developed a political movement.

Number of Agrarian Families
(Census of 1926)

Peasant Proprietors	1,732,180	31%
Tenant Farmers	1,508,539	27%
Half Tenants (Peasants who cultivate tenanted lands in addition to their own lands)	2,341,438	40%
Total	5,555,157	100%

According to the statistics for the last 10 years, an average of 10,000 peasant proprietor families are disappearing every year. They are either falling into the class of tenants or going to industrial centers and becoming factory labourers. The farmer movement in this country is not a mere agrarian question, but a social problem that requires early solution.

Farm disputes are not only of recent date. They have occurred here and there from time to time. But in 1922 they suddenly broke out in all parts of the country, as the result of direct influence by the labour movements in the urban districts, and in that year the Nippon Nomin Kumiai (Japan Farmers' Association) was organized on a national basis. It was an association of farmers only and embraced 50,000 adherents. It was this association that in 1925 took the initiative in the organization of the proletarian party. Later with the split of the proletarian party, the Nippon Nomin Kumiai also split into several factions according to the parties they supported. The only recent development in the rural districts worthy of notice is the movement for co-operative associations in villages.

B. Organization

It was towards the close of the Great War that the farmers were organized in unions, being influenced by the labour movements then in active operation. Thus there is a strong tie binding together the farmers' unions and the labour unions.

The following table is based on statistics supplied by the Department for Agriculture and Forestry:

	Tenant Unions	Landord Unions	Landlord and Tenant Harmonizing Associations
1925	3,496	532	1,369
1926	3,962	605	1,461
1927	4,313	655	1,600
1928	4,455	704	1,771

As stated above, the oldest and most influential tenant union was the Nippon Nomin Kumiai, which, however, was split up into several factions as the result of the split of the proletarian party that it supported. The remnants of the Nippon Nomin Kumiai kept up their stand for the left, but after the Communist raid in 1928, and the dissolution of the three left associations, they amalgamated with the unions of the centre and organized the Zenkoku Nomin Kumiai (National Farmers' Association), which now supports the Nippon Taishu-to, the central party. The Nippon Nomin Kumiai Sodomei is supporting the Shakai Minshu-to. This association, however, is of small importance, and is endeavouring to effect a merger with the Zen Nippon Nomin Kumiai (All Japan Farmers' Association). The latter, however, is inclined to return to independent local bodies.

The leading agrarian associations are as follows:

Name	Members
Zenkoku Nomin Kumiai (National Farmers' Association)	50,000
Nippon Nomin Kumiai Sodomei (Japan Federation of Farmers' Unions)	3,000
Zen Nippon Nomin Kumiai (All Japan Farmers' Association)	20,000
Chubu Nomin Kumiai (Association of Farmers in Central Japan)	7,000
Ten Other Associations	20,000

In the elections for municipal, town and village assemblies that have been going on since January this year, there have come into existence a few village assemblies, the majority of seats in which are held by the representatives of these farmers' associations, and there are increasing opportunities for the tenants to participate in rural administration.

C. Tenant Disputes

The disputes between the tenants and the landlords since 1921 have been as follows:

Year	Number of Disputes	Number of Persons Involved: Tenants	Landlords
1921	1,680	145,898	34,180
1922	1,578	125,750	29,077
1923	1,865	39,120	32,036
1924	1,260	88,315	21,910
1925	1,354	86,404	19,938
1926	2,029	116,669	30,601
1927	1,344	69,996	17,067
1928	1,099	48,963	12,706

With the depression of trade in general the number of labour troubles is declining, while on the other hand, tenant disputes are on the increase, which shows how the tenants' position is getting more difficult every year. Out of the 1,099 tenant disputes during 1928, those caused by claims for temporary reduction of farm-rents number 736. The position of tenant farmers requires consideration on the part of the state.

V. CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT

The co-operative movement among members of trade unions started by Mr. Katayama Sen (a famous Communist, now an exile in Russia) in about the year 1897 was the first movement of the sort in this country. It was, however, short-lived. In 1900 the Law for Industrial Associations was enacted and thereby the meaning of the term, "co-operative society," was much contracted, helping considerably toward a free growth of the movement along modern lines. In contrast with the rapid development of credit associations and sales associations, co-operative societies are in a backward condition.

The growth of co-operative societies since 1911 is shown in the following table:

Year	Number of Societies	Number of Members
1911	19	9,629
1916	27	14,086
1921	85	59,142
1925	129	119,946

Below is an analysis of the 129 societies listed for 1925:

	Number	Membership
Cooperative Societies of the General Public	66	43,432
Cooperative Societies of the Salaried Men	21	8,811
Cooperative Societies of the General Labourers	7	2,815
Exclusive Cooperative Societies of Firms and Companies	17	43,281
Cooperative Societies of Government Employees and Teachers	18	21,607
Total	129	119,946

The last two classes owe their existence to benevolent assistance on the part of employers. The true co-operative societies organized by consumers themselves for their own purposes, are those that are now being formed by labourers and the salaried classes. They are formed on the lines of the English system with slight modifications to suit conditions in this country. They are mostly in Tokyo. The Kwanto Shohikumiai Remmei (Kwanto Federation of Co-operative Societies) is a combination of 21 co-operative societies in the Kwanto district, with Tokyo at its centre. The members belonging to those societies number 7,000. It is confidently expected that this Kwanto Shohikumiai Remmei will in future rise to be the leading power among the co-operative societies in this country, and will become an important member of the League of International Co-operative Societies. Already on the first Saturday of July the International Co-operative Day is celebrated every year under the auspices of this federation.

The women's co-operative society is of very recent development. It was first organized in 1928. It has, however, not yet joined the International Co-operative Women's Guild. In this connection it is a remarkable fact that movements are ripening in country villages for the organization of village co-operative societies. As the promoters of the movement are in most cases the farmers' unions, it will not be long before such societies are formed in many parts of the country and give some relief to the empoverished villagers.

VI. SUIHEI UNDO (WATER LEVEL OR EQUALITY MOVEMENT)

In olden times under the Tokugawa regime there was a certain class of people who lived in certain quarters specified by the government and pursued the occupations most despised by the people. The people of this class were called "Eta" (unclean or untouchable) or "Hinin" (outcast), and were denied all the privileges of ordinary people. They were strictly forbidden to mingle with other people. After the Restoration, the new government abolished this discrimination and raised these people to the status of commoners in 1871. The world, however, called them "new commoners," and their quarters "specified quarters," and eyed them with looks of disdain. In 1907 there were 5,400 quarters and 799,000 people belonging to this class, and the population has been on the increase.

Although legally emancipated, these people were denied government relief from general persecution and from destitution for scores of years until 1918, when rice riots broke out all over the country. It was found that many from the special quarters participated in the riots. The government took warning from this situation and turned to the improvement of their situation, but nothing material came of the attempt. It proved a failure.

As it became evident that nothing could be expected toward the improvement of their position by leaving the matter in the hands of the government, in the year 1921, the people of

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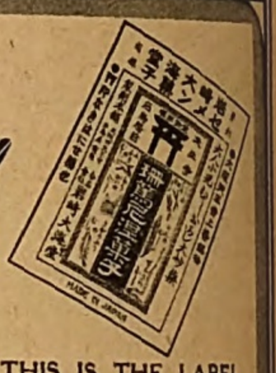

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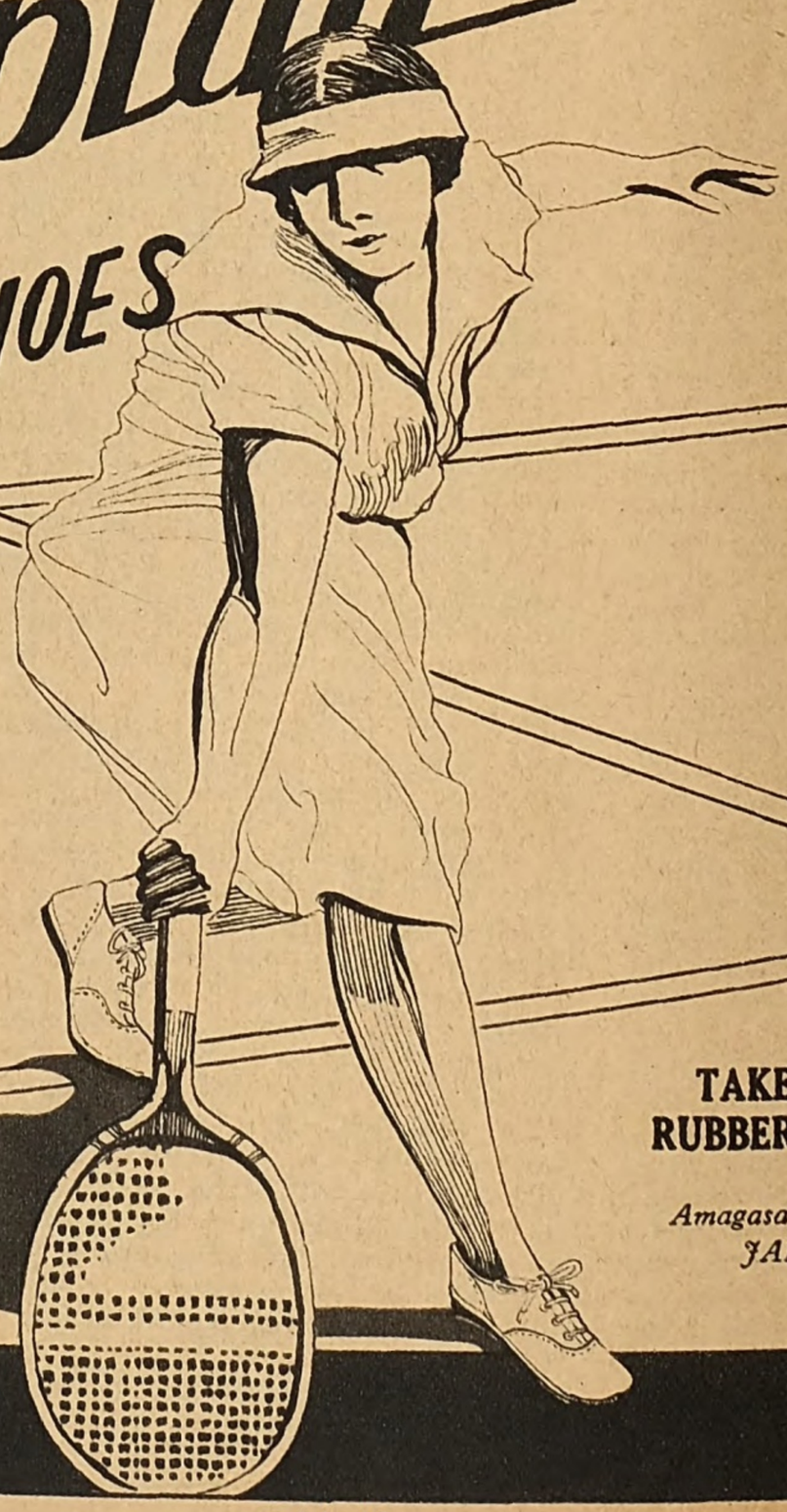

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the special quarters in Nara Prefecture united themselves into a society called the "Suihei-sha" (Water Level or Equality Society) with a view to working out their own emancipation. The movement quickly spread through the country.

In March, 1922, a general meeting of the people of the special quarters was held in Kyoto, and was attended by 4,000 delegates from all parts of the country. The "Zenkoku Suihei-sha" (All Japan Water Level Society) was organized at the meeting, which then adopted the following resolution:

(1) We, the people of the special quarters, aim at our absolute emancipation through our own efforts.

(2) We, the people of the special quarters, claim from the general public our absolute freedom in respect of our living and occupations, and aim to secure this freedom.

(3) Having awakened to the fundamental principle of our human nature, we shall strive for the perfection of our supreme humanity.

The general meeting adopted another resolution, which had far-reaching consequences in the relations between the general public and the people of the special quarters, who are now generally described as the Suihei-sha men, and engendered enmity between them in some cases. The resolution goes as follows:

"We will hold strictly to account anybody who dares to insult us by the use of the terms "Eta" (unclean), "Tokushuburaku-min" (people of the special quarters) or any such discriminative terms." With the development of the Suihei movement, there arose troubles between the Suihei-sha men and the general public in connection with the use of the discriminative words by the latter and the vengeance taken by the former. The most notable of these cases were the riots that took place in Nara and Gumma Prefectures. In both of these riots, hundreds of people were involved on each side and many casualties were reported.

At the second general meeting of the Suihei-sha, which was held in Kyoto in 1923, a resolution was adopted to refuse contributions to the funds of the Higashi and Nishi Honganji Temples. This was remarkable because these people had been for centuries devoted believers in the faith of these two temples. It showed a defiance of the traditional Buddhist influence, and as such, has much significance.

Of course the Suihei movement is no part of the racial movement of the country, but is a movement of a special class of the people. Generally speaking the people of this class are economically unfavoured and the conditions of their living are below the general level of the people of this country. Naturally there is a possibility of their movement merging with the proletarian movements. In fact from the beginning the Suihei-sha has kept a close connection with the proletarian movements. The rise of the proletarian parties stimulated the Suihei-sha people toward a proletarian movement, and a close coalition was formed between the Suihei-sha and the Rodo Nomin-to, the left party. On the other hand, however, a section of the Suihei-sha people insisted that the Suihei-sha should keep themselves above political disputes. They rely upon the improvement of social institutions for the elevation of their status, and they insist on self defence for this purpose only. There exists keen rivalry between these two factions of the Suihei-sha.

VII. WOMEN'S MOVEMENTS

A. The Movement for Woman Suffrage

Politically the position of women in this country is below that of women in other countries, but in a country where general manfood suffrage was granted only recently, this is only to be expected. We have, however, no doubt that the women's untiring and earnest efforts during long years will one day be rewarded and women will be granted the suffrage equally with men. Before reaching this goal, however, many difficulties will have to be overcome one after another. Already in 1922 Article V of the Police Regulations for the Maintenance of Public Peace was revised so that women could take part in political meetings and hear political speeches.

Encouraged by the adoption of universal manhood suffrage, the women suffragists petition the Diet at every session for suffrage for women. Through their zeal and efforts the Police Regulations for the Maintenance of Public Peace will some day be revised so that the ban on women's participation in political organizations will be lifted, and finally, before very long, the suffrage will be granted them.

Among the women's societies working for this end we may mention the Nippon Fujin Sanseiken Kyokai (Japan Woman Suffrage Association), organized in 1926, the Fujin Sansei Domei (Woman Suffrage Alliance), the Fusen Kakutoku Domei (Alliance for Securing Woman Suffrage), and the women's societies of the proletarian parties. The representatives of these women's societies form a conference and are working jointly for their common aim. They are represented at the general meeting of the International Women's Suffrage Alliance, the central office of which is situated in London.

Woman suffrage constitutes a plank in the platforms of the proletarian parties, both right and left. The two major parties, the Minsei-to—the government party—and the Seiyukai—the only opposition party—, being influenced by the general clamour, are considering the adoption of woman suffrage in their platforms, too.

B. Women's Labour Movement

The number of women labourers is about half that of men labourers. Classified according to their occupations in December, 1928, their number is as follows:

Women Working in Factories	1,031,688
Women Working in Mines	61,783
Women Employed in Communications	33,445
Day Labourers	406,696
Total	1,533,612

Cotton spinners and silk reelers and those engaged in other branches of the yarn industry represent some eighty per cent. of the factory women, and naturally the yarn industry constitutes the principal objective of the women's labour movement in this country. The working hours of women labourers are as follows:

9—10 hour day	28% of total
10—12 hour day	53% of total

The dyeing and weaving labourers work the longest day. There were hitherto over 200,000 women working at night, but from July this year juvenile and female night work at factories has been forbidden by law. In spite of the long hours they have to work, they are very badly paid, their wage in cases being below a yen a day.

The women's labour movement has developed as a part of the labour union movement. Its aim is the improvement of the labour conditions of factory women. The means adopted for securing this purpose are strikes and loafing on the job, with support from the labour unions. There are at present over 12,000 women organized in unions.

The rise of proletarian parties led some of the women supporting these parties to organize women's associations in aid of one or the other of them. Thus the Kwanto Fujin Domei (Kwanto Women's Alliance) was organized by women of the left, but it was short lived. The Rodo Fujin Remmei (League of Women Labourers) supports the Shakai Minshu-to, and the Zenkoku Fujin Domei (All Japan Women's Alliance) supports the Nippon Taishu-to. These associations are working for the education of proletarian women, teaching them how to assert themselves by means of organization and strikes, and they also are teaching them politics and election laws. However, the women thus politically organized are few and altogether do not much exceed 500.

As stated above, by the revision of the Factory Law, women's night work in factories has been prohibited. There still remains much in the present system that requires revision or new enactments. Thus the subterranean labour of women in mines ought to be checked, and the establishment of maternity hospitals for the poor and the protection of motherhood require the early attention of the government.

The feature of women's movements recently has been the attempts to organize co-operative societies. The slogan, "Social reform should begin in the kitchen," shows how women are awakening to the social current and emerging from the old traditions.

VIII. STUDENT AND JUVENILE MOVEMENTS

A. Student Movement

The social science movement constituted the principal of the student movements. It was initiated by the

Mr. Komakichi Matsuoka, Member of the Social Peoples' Party, Leaving Kobe for the International Labour Conference with His Interpreter, Miss McDonald of Tokyo

Shinjin Kai (New Men's Society) organized by the students of the Tokyo Imperial University and by the Gyomin Kai (Society of Dawning People). It spread to over 30 universities and over 70 colleges, almost every one of which had a society formed by the students for the study of social science. It culminated in the formation of a central organ called the Gakusei Shakai-kagaku Kenkyu Rengo-kai (League of Student Societies for the Study of Social Science).

In 1925 there was a raid on the social science societies in the Tokyo and Kyoto Imperial Universities, which resulted in the arrest of over 30 students on the charge of the violation of the Police Regulations for the Maintenance of Public Peace, and their arraignment in court.

The Communists raids which were carried out simultaneously throughout the country in 1928 disclosed the fact that many university students belonging to the social science societies and many graduates who had previously belonged to were taking an active part in the Communist movement. On that account the government ordered the dissolution of the League of Student Societies for the Study of Social Science, and at the same time the free study of social science in colleges and universities was prohibited. Such pressure brought to bear upon the students could not be accepted by them in silence. Trouble arose in many schools between the students and the staff, and many students were expelled.

B. Juvenile Movement

The general census of 1925 shows the following figures for young people between the ages of 15 and 24:

Male	Female	Total
4,963,169	5,482,635	10,445,804

These figures represent 38 per cent. of the total population of this country between 15 and 50 years of age.

Most of these young people are engaged in farming. The factory labourers come next, and it is these that are the leaders in most of the juvenile movements. Their demand for participation in politics led the young men to the organization of a society in August, 1926. The society was called the Zen-Nippon Musan Seinen Domei (Japan Young Proletarians' Union), which, however, was ordered dissolved in April, 1928. There are at present juvenile unions belonging to each proletarian party, and they are continuing their demand for political rights.

The labour unions and farmers' unions have juvenile departments, but in them the demand of the youths is for economic advancement rather than political rights.

IX. CULTURAL MOVEMENT

There have been two main currents in the cultural movements in this country. One was initiated by the intellectual section of the middle class, and the other come out of the proletarian class. The former, however, gradually merged in the latter, and with the development of the proletarian movement, the neo-cultural movement is now playing an important part in the cultural history of the country.

A. Literary Movement

Literature played the part of herald of the cultural movements. There are two main streams in the proletarian literary movement: one is represented by the Bungei Sensen (Literary Front), an organ of the Rono Geijutsu Remmei (League of Proletarian Artists), which has social democratic tendencies; the other by the Senki (War Banner), an organ of the Zen-Nippon Puroretaria Geijutsu Domei (All Japan Proletarian Artists' Union), commonly known as "napf" which stands for the Marxism of the left. The former is led by Messrs. Aono and Maedako, proletarian writers who place importance on the creation of fiction. Theoretically they are backward. The latter, on the other hand, attaches importance to theories as well as to literary work. Their weakness is falling into idealism. Messrs. Fujimori, Akita, Kurahara, Kobayashi and other youthful and ardent writers belong to this group. Their field of activity is not limited to literary work, for they have also to do with the fine arts, theatrical performances, the cinema and music. Really they appear to be leading the new literature of the country. Besides these two groups there is a group of new literary writers and critics. They, however, are falling off in influence.

B. Theatrical Movement

The establishment of the Tsukiji Sho-Gekijo theatre by the late Osanai Kaoru and Mr. Hijikata Yoshi in 1924 marked a new departure in the theatrical world of Japan. This theatre aimed to please the intellectual rather than the lower classes. After the death of Mr. Osanai, the group that supported the theatre split. Mr. Hijikata and his followers deserted the company and organized a new one to be known as the Shin Tsukiji Geki-dan.

The Sayoku Geki-jo is a company of the left, led by Messrs. Sasaki, Sano, Murayama and others, who belong to the "napf" referred to above. Their activities are considerably interfered with by a severe police censureship. They conduct a traveling theatre, which goes from village to village and factory to factory, giving performances as a part of the proletarian movement. There are, besides, a few minor groups engaged in the proletarian theatrical movement in the country.

C. Fine Arts Movement

It was about 1910 that Mr. Nakagawa Kigen and others organized the neo-realistic movement, in rebellion against the traditional academic school. Other movements are the "Mabau" of constitutionalism started by Mr. Murayama Tomoyoshi, and "The Napf Fine Arts Union", led by Messrs. Nagata, Yanase and Kibe. In this union are Messrs. Okamoto and Yabe, sculptors. It is a much improved modern fine arts movement, and shows a notable propensity for proletarian realism. A proletarian caricature movement of the school of Gross, a German Communist caricaturist, led by Messrs. Yanase and Shimokawa, is also worthy of notice.

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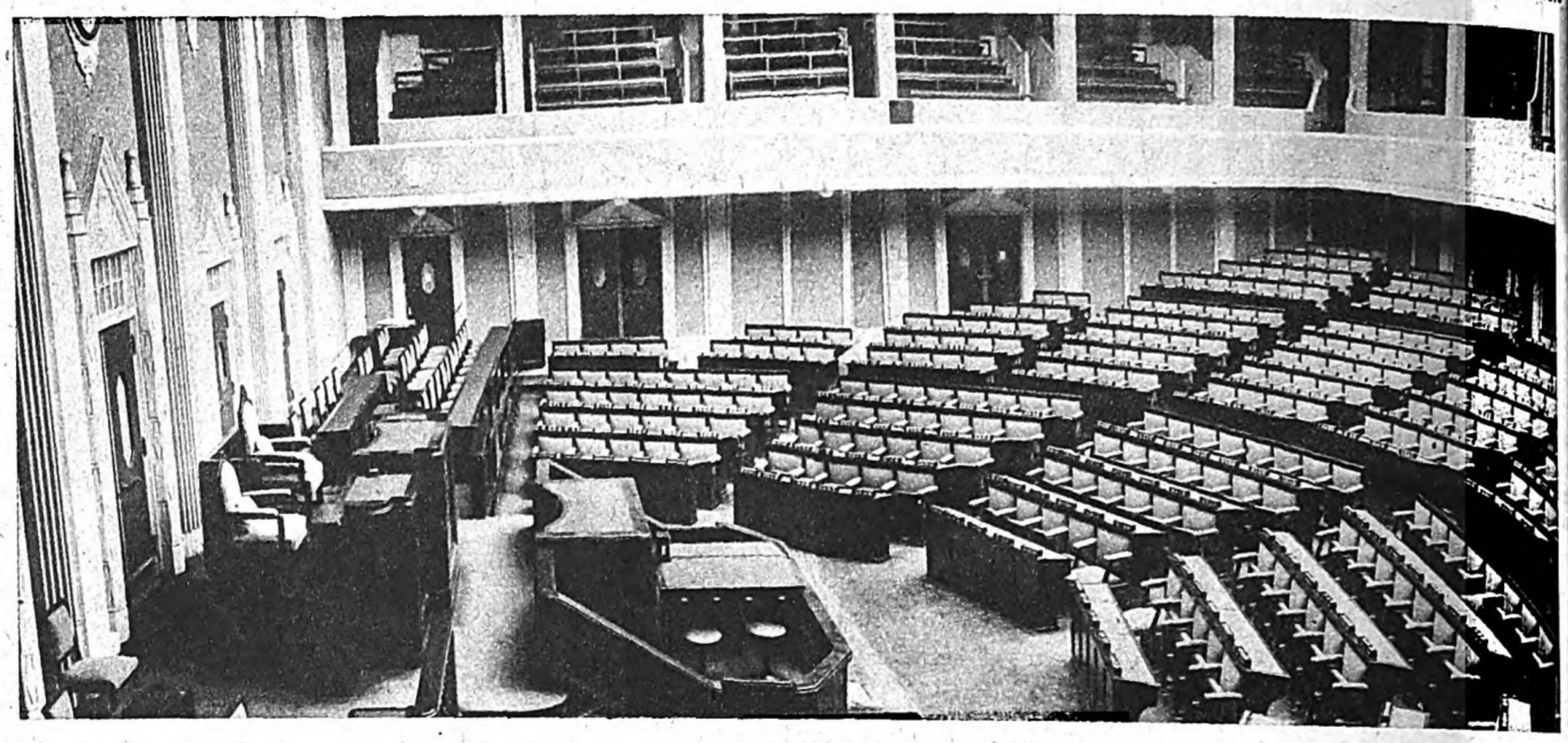
International Conferences to be Held in Japan This Year

By Susumu Aibara,
Tokyo Office, League of Nations

FOR international intercourse Japan has great drawbacks because of her geographical position, her economic condition, and above all her language, and nevertheless in recent years she has taken part widely in world conferences of various sorts, making great headway in her international relations.

This year Japan has so far taken part in more than thirty international conferences in relation to Tourists, Boy-Scouts, Commerce, Industry, Science, the League of Nations, Education, Esperanto, etc. etc., held in Copenhagen, Stockholm, Madrid, Budapest, Monaco, Rome, Pretoria in South Africa, Batavia, New York, Honolulu and other places. She is in this large measure cooperating with the rest of the world in international affairs.

Although she is taking part in so many international gatherings, it is very seldom that such gatherings are held in this country. Europeans have a saying, "See Naples before you die," but for many Americans and Europeans, the scenery of this country has such great attraction that they now say, "See Japan before you die." In spite, however, of their eager desire to see her splendid scenery, on account of the distance and consequently great expense of the journey, and lack of adequate accommodations, the chances for holding international conferences in this country have so far been rather scarce. Thanks, however, to the phenomenal development of means of communication, and remarkable improvement in accommodations, Japan is now in a position to invite world delegates to meet in her domain. During the last decade we have had several world gatherings in this country: in 1920 the Eighth World Sunday School Convention was held in Tokyo; in 1925 the Sixth Oriental Congress of Tropical Medicine, and the Conference on Exchange of Medical Officials in the Far East under the auspices of the League of Nations; in 1926 the Second Congress of the Oriental Red Cross, the Third Pan-Pacific Science Congress, and the First Pan-Asiatic Race Congress; in 1928 the Second Pacific Rotary Conference. Most of these gatherings, which brought together numerous delegates from the four corners of the world, were held in Tokyo.



Hall Where the Sessions of the World Engineering Congress and the Tokyo Sectional Meeting of the World Power Conference Will be Held in the Diet Building, Tokyo

Mr. M. Koizumi, Minister of Communications, Who Will Act as the Honorary Chairman of the Tokyo Sectional Meeting of the World Power Conference

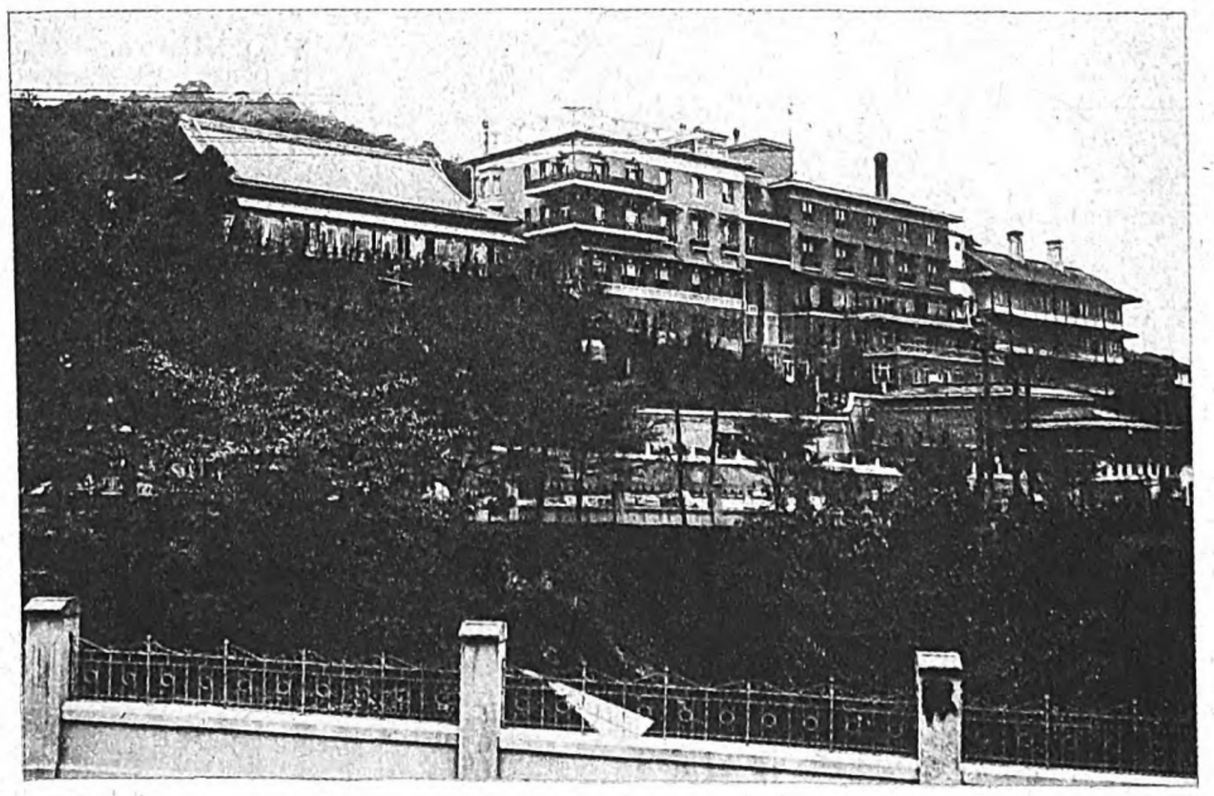
Baron Dr. Koi Furuichi, Chairman of the World Engineering Congress and the Tokyo Sectional Meeting of the World Power Conference

Dr. Inazo Nitobe, Chairman of the Third Biennial Conference of the Institute of Pacific Relations

It is remarkable that three world conferences will be held, two in Tokyo, and the third in Kyoto, in the coming fall. They are "The Third Biennial Conference of the Institute of Pacific Relations," "The World Engineering Congress," and "The Tokyo Section Meeting of the World Power Conference." The Institute of Pacific Relations has for its purpose the development of friendly relations among the peoples of the countries washed by the waters of the Pacific Ocean, by holding conferences of the representatives of these countries on international questions, racial problems, and matters relating to social science. The central office of the association is in Honolulu, and the conferences are held biennially. The preliminary committee meeting in preparation for the third plenary meeting, which will be held in Kyoto from October 28 to November 9, will be held in Nara for five days from October 23 next. The plenary meeting will be presided over by Dr. I. Nitobe and in the series of round table sessions and forums, questions relating to food supply, communications, culture, diplomacy, trade, natural resources, and international relations in Manchuria, organs for promoting the peace of the Pacific, and issues between China and the Powers will form the principal subjects of debate. It is a matter of congratulation that so important an association as the Institute of Pacific Relations, which ranks with the League of Nations, and the Pan-American Union, will hold its conference in the ancient capital of the Island Empire for debates and solution of problems aiming at the promotion of peace and happiness among the peoples of the countries of the Pacific.

The World Engineering Congress will be held in Tokyo from the 29th of October till the 7th of November under the auspices of Prince Chichibu as president. The Prime Minister, Mr. Y. Hamaguchi, will hold the position of honorary chairman, and Baron Dr. Koi Furuichi will be chairman. The aim of the Congress is to discuss various engineering subjects with the aim eventually to initiate and promote international cooperation in the study of engineering science and problems in all its branches and to cultivate a feeling of brotherhood among the engineers of the world. The programme of the Congress includes the inspection of the progress of reconstruction work in Tokyo and Yokohama, the visiting of works and factories, and a trip to the Kansai and Kyushu districts. It was the rapid development of her material civilization that put Japan among the great powers of the world, and this development is attributable to the excellent genius and ingenuity, and the great ability of her engineers, which have been exhibited in the exploitation of natural resources, construction of railways, harbours and other public works, and in shipbuilding, building construction and other industries. The coming World Engineering Congress is the first of such meetings in the Far East, and the widest in its scope of like congresses, and is attracting the keen attention of the engineering world.

The Tokyo Sectional Meeting of the World Power Conference is to be held at about the same time as the World Engineering Conference. This conference is to be held at the instance of the Japanese National Commitee of the World Power Conference. The object of the Conference is for those connected with the power industry of the world to meet together and discuss questions relating to the exploitation of power resources and their utilization, and



Miyako Hotel, Kyoto, Where the Sessions of the Third Biennial Conference of the Institute of Pacific Relations Will be Held

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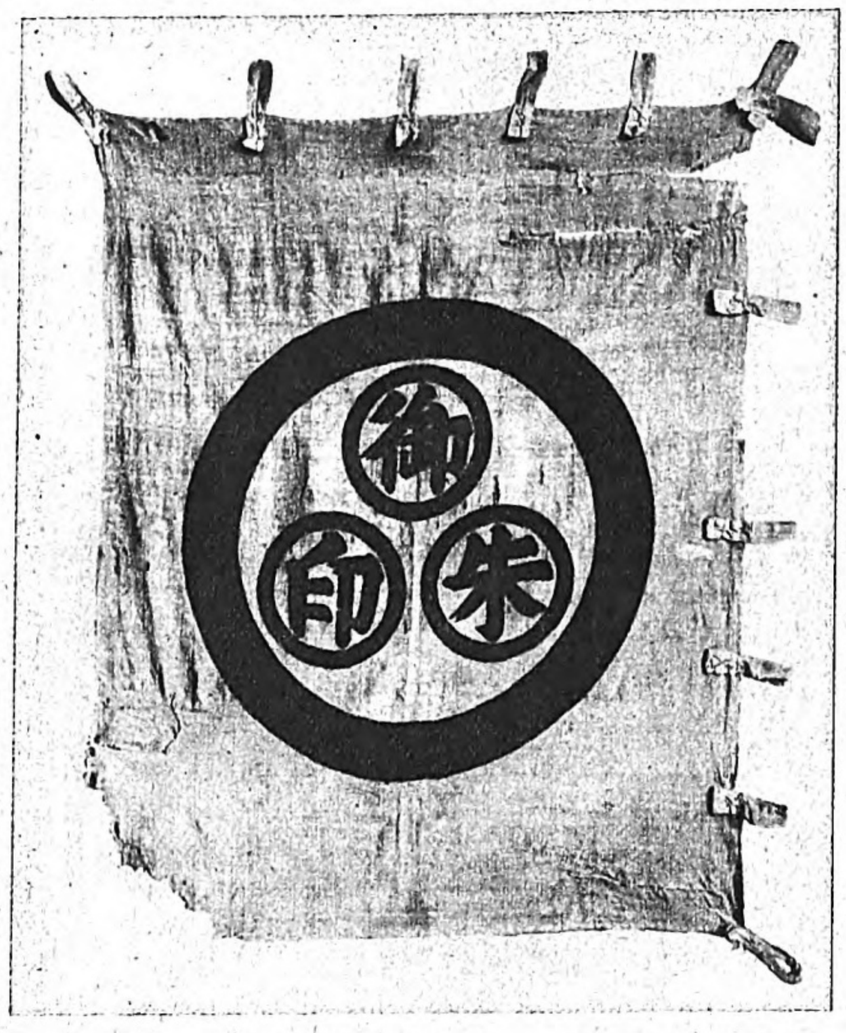
form friendly relations among themselves. The Minister of Communications, Mr. M. Koizumi, will be the honorary chairman, and Baron Dr. Koi Furuichi the chairman. Following the opening ceremony to be held on the morning of the 30th of October, sectional meetings of various branches of power science will be held until the 7th of November. After the close of the conference, the delegates will join the delegates of the World Engineering Congress in the inspection of works and factories, and trips to Western Japan.

The Fourth National Convention of Medical Science, which is to take place in Osaka in April, 1930, will be attended by many medical experts of the world, and will practically form an international conference. Taking advantage of this opportunity, the First International Leprosy Prevention Conference will be held. The members of the Commission for the Study of Leprosy of the Health Committee of the League of Nations will take part in the Conference and make inspections of the various institutions in this country for the aid of lepers.

The aim of holding these international conferences in Japan is to give opportunities to the world intelligentsia to see for themselves Japan as she is, and to better understand her, and eventually to promote friendly relations among the peoples of the world, which will conduce to the peace and eternal happiness and welfare of the human race.

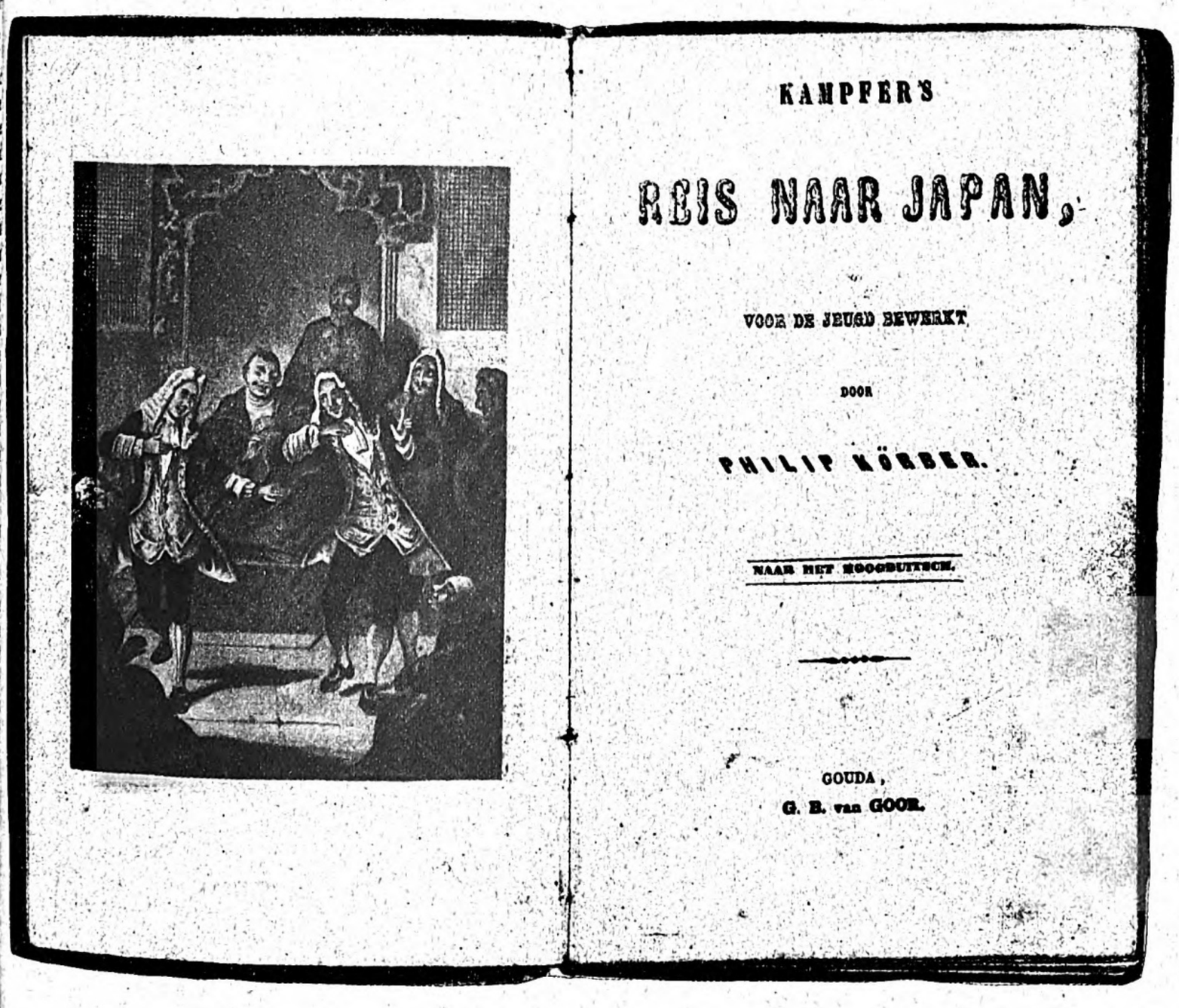


Flag of an Old Merchant Ship Bearing the "Goshuin" of the Tokugawa Government

Early European Culture in Japan

FERNANDO Mendez Pinto, the Portuguese who drifted in a boat to Tanegashima Island, now a part of Kagoshima Prefecture, and introduced the gun into Japan, in 1543, was the first occidental ever to set foot on Japanese soil. Later, in 1549, came Francois Xavier, a Portuguese missionary, who was engaged in propagating Christianity and gained many followers. In 1582, three daimyo of Kyushu sent youthful envoys to Spain and Rome. In 1587, however, Taiko Hideyoshi, then the virtual ruler of Japan, indignant at the activities of European missionaries in Nagasaki, forbade them to do missionary work and ordered them to leave the country. But he placed no restrictions on business; nay, far from doing so, he encouraged the people to go abroad—chiefly to Southern Asia—for business. Portuguese missionaries, however, remained in many places and engaged in missionary work with no less ferver than before. Meanwhile Spanish and Dutch vessels came to the shores of Japan seeking trading opportunities. And at the beginning of the sixteenth century Dutch and British merchants opened factories at Hirado in Kyushu and competed with each other in business.

Old Picture and Explanation of a Western Gun



Kampfer and a Dutch Companion Dancing Before the Shogun, a Picture in "Reis Naar Japan"

In 1630, Tokugawa Iyemitsu, the third Shogun of the Tokugawa regime, seeing that Christianity still prevailed, put a ban on the import of European books. Against this act of oppression, a riot broke out at Shimabara in Kyushu in 1637. But it was soon subdued. This upheaval, however, resulted in an act, issued in 1639, forbidding all communication with foreign countries except Holland and China, both of which were permitted to do business at Nagasaki. This partial closing of the country to Europeans continued up to the end of the seventeenth century. During this period Japan could come in contact with European culture only through the Dutch who, on their part, eagerly studied conditions in Japan. Among them Kaempfer, Calon, Thunberg, Titsingh, Feith, Doeff and Philipp Franz von Siebold became well known through their books on things Japanese written for the purpose of explaining Japan to European countries.

In 1817, a British merchantman came to Uraga in Sagami, for the purpose of concluding a commercial agreement with our country and later, men-of-war from Russia, the United States and France frequently entered our ports and requested us to open trade with their countries. Meanwhile, many changes had come about in the political situation in Japan and the power of the Tokugawa government was gradually declining when Commodore Perry came to Uraga on a warship of the United States in 1853 and again in the following year. He had studied the true situation in Japan through books written by Dutchmen and other Europeans and had learned that the failures hitherto made by European nations in their negotiations for commercial treaties had been due to the fact that they had underestimated Japan and had approached her in an aggressive at-

Figure of a Nagasaki Harlot Hesitating Before a Picture of Christ on Which she must Tread to Prove Herself Untouched by the Christian Influence

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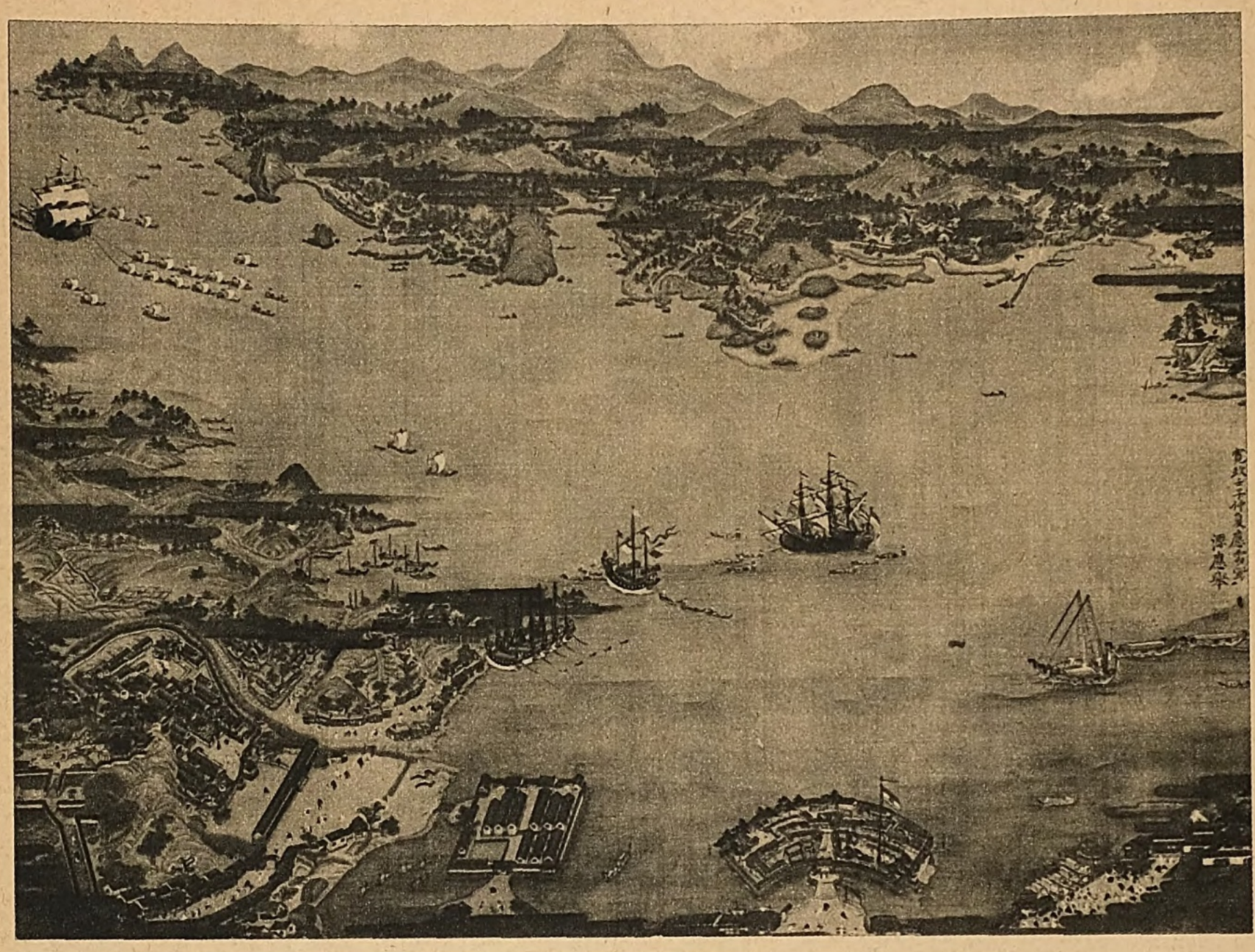

An Old Picture of Nagasaki Harbour by Maruyama Okyo

titude. He made a suggestion to the Washington government and, getting its permission, came over to Japan with a fixed determination and succeeded in concluding a commercial treaty with her. Stimulated by his success, representatives of Russia, England and France followed his example and managed to make similar agreements. But such concessions on the part of Japan were not favoured by public opinion, and on this account, the Tokugawa government collapsed in 1868 and with it ended Japan's feudal system for ever.

Upon the completion of the Restoration of Meiji, relations with foreign countries were established on a sound foundation and western civilisation began to be introduced into Japan at an accelerating rate. Thus some four hundred years passed from the time of our first contact with European peoples till our country was entirely thrown open to foreign nations at the beginning of the Meiji era. During this period the Empire saw many vicissitudes in the fields of politics, economy, art, science, etc. The Osaka Asahi Shimbun, for the purpose of studying these changes and making them an aid toward the further development of the country, held, in Osaka from March 10 to April 17 in connection with the celebration of its semi-centenary which fell in January this year, an "Exhibition of Objects Connected with the Early Introduction of European Culture into Japan." Some two thousand valuable books, pictures, utensils and other objects concerning navigation, overseas trade, industries, medical science, literature, fine arts, religion and so forth were exhibited through the kindness of the Imperial Household Department, the Imperial Museums, the Tokyo and Kyoto Imperial Universities, libraries, Shinto shrines, Buddhist temples and other owners numbering five hundred in all. This undertaking was highly applauded by the general public and was visited by tens of thousand of people including scholars, officials, artists and archaeologists. On the last day, the exhibition was honoured with a visit by H. H. Prince Morimasa Nashimoto.

A Fumie, One of Many Representations of the Christ on Which Suspected Converts to Christianity were Compelled to Trample in the Olden Days to Prove their Lack of Faith

Ikeda Chikugo-no-kami, First Envoy to France, Photographed With His Suite in the Land of Napoleon III

Illustration on Opposite Page

An Up-to-date Young Lady of Japan in an Old Japanese Garden, Posed by Natsukawa Shizue, Popular Film Star

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Issa and Nojiri

A Quaint Old Poet and a Lotus-Leaf Lake in the Pinnacled Top of Japan

Glenn W. Shaw

A HUNDRED and fifty miles from Tōkyō up in the top of Japan here the old provinces of Shinano and chigo meet not far from the Japan ea, lies a high vale with a lotus-haped lake cradled in low mountains n one side and a row of spiring peaks n the other. The lake is ordinarily alled Nojiri (Moor End) and poetically uyō (Lotus), for it lies like a shining otus leaf in the mountains, a lotus leaf ith broken and wavy edges. The nly high peak rising directly from its hores is Madoro (Spotted Tail) which ars up above a tiny village of grass-atched houses called Sugakawa (Reed iver) at the east end of a long lobe of ater. On the northwest edge of the ke lies Nojiri village and beyond cross a river on the other side of the ale rise three high peaks in a row, Iyōkō (Marvelous and High) at the orth, Kurohime (Black Princess) in e middle and Iizuna (Boiled-rice ope) at the south, with farther away p between Kurohime and Iizuna, the igh crags of Togakushi (Door Hiding), d up between Myōkō and Kurohime, e high plateau of Sasa-ga-Mine Bamboo-grass Peak), from which flows a series of falls the river Seki (Bar-er), which foams away from the vale own through a deep gorge toward the pan Sea. West Coast trains for ōkyō puff up through this gorge into e vale and down out of it again along roily little stream that goes zigzagging rough a lesser gorge down into the uitful plain of Nagano. In the iddle of the vale, at the highest point e railway reaches, among mulberry rdens and rice paddies and fragrant lds of buckwheat in summer and ep under the snow in winter dreams strung-out little settlement of houses, ostly grass-thatched, divided by a ep hill and a sudden bend in the ad into the village of Kashiwabara ak Land) and the town of Furuma ld Gap).

In the village of Kashiwabara was rn in a farmhouse in 1763 and ed in a godown in 1827 one of e gentlest and queerest and withal ost lovable of seventeen-syllable verse riters Japan has ever produced. His me was Kobayashi Yatarō, but when took to writing verses in earnest, called himself, "Issa," (One Tea). is of Issa and Lake Nojiri and all e high-lying vale to which they long that I write.

Issa lived one of the saddest lives at ever poet lived. His mother ed when he was two, and though he d an old grandmother who took the st care she could of him after that, six, tradition says, he was writing in neliness,

Ware to kite asobeya oya no nai suzume
Come over with me
And together let's play,
Oh, motherless sparrow.

When he was seven, a stepmother me into the home and took him away om his studies at a rich man's and t him to work for her. The next ar a half brother was born, and his oubles increased. At thirteen he st his grandmother, and his father ought best to send him away to hunt r work in Yedo, now Tōkyō, then e flowery Tokugawa capital. There remained in obscurity for eleven ars, spending at least a part of his me in a temple and finally appearing history again as a young man of enty-four seriously making of himself poet. After that he perfected him-lf in the poetic forms in Yedo and travels far and wide and finally turned to Kashiwabara to care for s dying father, whom he lost when was thirty-eight. From that time till he was forty-nine, he went back d forth between Yedo and Kashiwa-bara always trying to reach a peaceable understanding with his stepmother and half-brother about his share of a small patrimony. Once during those years, when he arrived at his old home after a long tramp from Yedo, they received him so meanly that he never even took off his sandals, but walked the two miles and a half farther to Nojiri village on the lake, where he often went for solace, expressing his feelings in the well-known verse,

Furusato ya yoru mo sawaru mo bara no hana
My native village—
On approach and to the touch
A bramble rose.

At forty-nine he came back and rented a little house in Kashiwabara, marrying for the first time at fifty-one and settling down there to try to be happy with a wife of twenty-eight. By her he had four boys and a girl, each of whom in turn died shortly after birth. When he lost the little girl, who lived nearly a year, he wrote,

Tsuyu no yo wa tsuyu no yo nagara sari nagara
World like a dewdrop-
Though it's only a dewdrop,
Even so, even so—

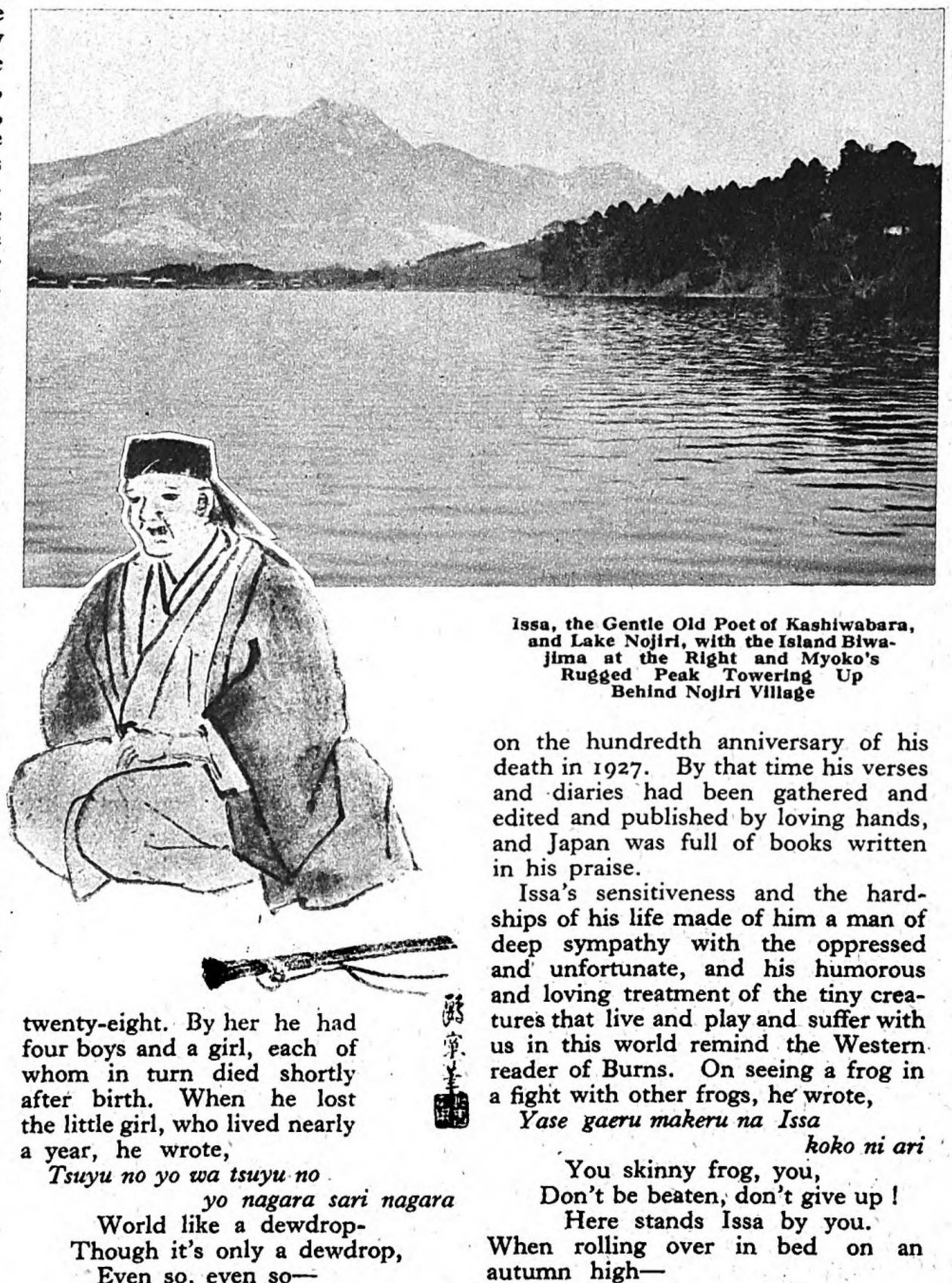
At fifty-seven he suffered a stroke but recovered. When he was sixty, his wife, who had been good to him, died, and he gave his infant boy to a neighbor family to raise, but they let him die too. At sixty-one he married a second wife, only to be left by her in less than three months. Then he married a third at sixty-two. During the next year his health failed rapidly. His house burned down when he was sixty-four, and he wrote,

Hotarubi mo amaseba iyahaya kore wa haya
Even a firefly's fire,
If increased, heaven help us!
Well, well, heaven help us!

After the fire he moved into an old godown, where on the nineteenth of the eleventh month in 1827 he had another stroke and died, leaving behind him this quaint last verse,

Tarai kara tarai ni utsuru chimpunkan
From infant bathtub
To burial tub changing—
This utter nonsense!

During Issa's latter years in Kashiwabara, he had a little meditation hut on the side of a knoll near the present station, called Maruyama. Now the knoll is a public park with a little hermitage in it called Haikaiji (Playful Composition Temple) after his old hut, and on one side of it in the cemetery of the temple Meisenji, is Issa's grave. There are two stones, one small and mossy and insignificant and one high and new and imposing. The former shows what he was to the world and what the world was when he died and the latter what he had become to it and how it had changed



Issa, the Gentle Old Poet of Kashiwabara, and Lake Nojiri, with the Island Biwajima at the Right and Myoko's Rugged Peak Towering Up Behind Nojiri Village

on the hundredth anniversary of his death in 1927. By that time his verses and diaries had been gathered and edited and published by loving hands, and Japan was full of books written in his praise.

Issa's sensitiveness and the hardships of his life made of him a man of deep sympathy with the oppressed and unfortunate, and his humorous and loving treatment of the tiny creatures that live and play and suffer with us in this world remind the Western reader of Burns. On seeing a frog in a fight with other frogs, he wrote,

Yase gaeru makeru na Issa koko ni ari
You skinny frog, you,
Don't be beaten, don't give up!
Here stands Issa by you.

When rolling over in bed on an autumn high—

Nekaeri wo suru zo waki yori kirigirisu
I'm turning over,
Look out and give me room there,
You cricket, you.

At sight of a fly rubbing first its front pair of legs together and then its back pair—

Yare utsu na hai ga te wo suri ashi wo suru
Wait, don't strike that fly!
He's wringing his hands, there,
And wringing his feet.

Turning from the poet to the lake and beginning with simple facts, Lake Nojiri has a circumference of between 8 and 9 miles, but its shoreline is so irregular that its area is only about 2½ square miles. The longest straight line in the lake lies in general from east to west and is a little over three miles in length, the next longest being a little over 2½ miles. The water is more than 120 feet deep at the deepest and averages a little less than 50 feet, the drop at the shoreline usually being very sudden. It is about 2112 feet above sea level but surprisingly warm for a mountain lake. Measured by the standards of clearness adopted by Forel, the Swiss originator of limnology, its water is No. 5 in a series of tests ranging from 1 for the water of the bluest lakes to 24 for that of the muddiest.

Water runs out of the lake through the Ikejiri Kawa (Pond-end River) at Nojiri, but no streams feed it with the exception of two tiny little runlets. Its water comes for the most part from the snow and rain that falls on the limited watershed provided by the ring of low hills in which it lies. Whether the lake bed is itself an old volcanic crater or a hollow made in some prehistoric eruption of Madoro or a valley blocked up with lava from the volcano Kurohime is not clear, but scientists incline to the latter opinion. Tradition says that the lake used to be across the low range behind Sugakawa village in the basin-like valley of Furumi. As for how the water got over into the Nojiri basin, one story says that it seeped through at a certain soggy place still in Furumi, and one that the *nushi*, or spirit, of the old lake in Furumi moved over into the Nojiri valley and brought his lake with him, and still another simply that an old man with a white beard dressed in white came to a man asleep where Nojiri vilage stands and told him to flee, which he did, and when he came back, he found the lake there. Some think the lake must once have been much larger than now, including the present basin and the basin of Furumi and all the low-lying rice-land beyond Nojiri village. It was called No-no-Umi (Sea of the Moors) in ancient times, and nobody knows exactly how and when and where the village of Nojiri started.

But when the Hokkoku Kaidō (North Country Highway), along which all West Coast travelers passed on thier way to and from the Tokugawa capital, was built through that district in 1611, Nojiri was one of the eight important stopping places strung along the base of the mountains, known as the "Eight Stations Under the Mist." The richest *daimyô* in Japan, the Lord of Kaga, whose annual allowance was a million *koku* of rice, passed with his train every other year along that road when Issa lived in Kashiwabara and Nojiri was a prosperous place with seven inns worthy the patronage of such a traveler. Issa's father carried baggage on this road, as did nearly all the working people of these villages, and the baggage of the Lord of Kaga never stopped passing from one year's end to the next. Issa has celebated the spectacular *daimyô* trains in many a verse,

Umebachi no dai chochin ya kasumi kara
Great bulging lanterns
With crests on them of open plum,
Come out of the mist.

Suzume no ko soko noke soko noke ouma ga tôru
You baby sparrow,
Get out of that, get out of that,
Melord's horse would pass.

The soil was poor, volcanic ash over hard clay, and the season for coaxing it short. The characteristic crop of the neighborhood was buckwheat. Issa, naming as the prides of the province, the moon of Obasuteyama and the Buddha of Nagano, with the buckwheat of his home, sang,

Shinano wa tsuki to hotoke to ora ga soba
In our Shinano,
The moon and the Buddha
And buckwheat of mine!

Then there were these big long white radishes. Issa gives us a picture of a farmer pausing in his work in a radish field that would make a fine genre painting,

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Daiko hiki daiko de michi wo
oshie keri
The radish puller,
Pointing with a radish root,
Teaches me the way.

And then, of course, there was rice, though not of the best variety. Issa sang,

Shinanoji ya ue no ue ni mo
taue uta
On Shinano ways,
Paddy above paddy rising,
The rice-field planting song.

Nebanashi no ashi de oriori
naruko kana
From time to time with feet
Sprawled out in noonday sleep,
I pull the scarecrow string.

But in winter, life was hard. The snow fell cruelly. The people made bird-nest-like things of their houses by wrapping straw mats around them and leaving themselves only one little entrance. With deepening winter, as they shoveled the snow off their roofs time after time, it piled up around their houses till they were invisible and could only be entered by steps kept open down the snow banks into their single doors. Then, with the drifting of the snow, it became impossible to tell where there was a house and where there was not, and there are old stories in Nojiri of men putting signs in the snow above their houses reading, "Below this there is a house. Commit no nuisance," and of people falling down chimney holes and crying, "I'm from the world. Please help me." Nowadays the men of the village can work with snow gangs on the railway and the boys play on skis. But in those days, apart from a little carrying by sled, there was nothing much to do in winter but to sit under comforters thrown over central braziers and make straw sandals and drink tea and talk and eat and sleep, or to go out and burn a little charcoal or fish through holes in the rough snow ice that forms about two feet thick on the lake, the depth of the water or something preventing early or very thick freezing. Issa, thinking of the climes he had visited farther south, sang

Shogatsu ya ume no kawari
ni ôfubuki
The New Year comes,
And instead of plum blossoms,
A great storm of snow.

And of the houses down under the snow—

Sorihiki ya yane kara otosu
todoke bumi
The snow-sled puller
Drops down from the roof of the house
The letter he brings.

As soon as the Restoration had put an end to the old Tokugawa system, the *daimyô* trains stopped passing and travelers along the Hokkoku Kaidō grew fewer. Then in 1899, when the Shinetsu railway line, which follows the rivers and has its nearest station at Kashiwabara, was opened for traffic, practically nobody used the old road at all except the sparse local population, and grass grew over it and the village fortunes declined.

Added to all that, Nojiri has long been the regular victim of fire and natural calamities. History records that since 1724 it has been almost completely wiped out by fire five times, utterly destroyed by earthquake once, brought low by crop failure and famine twice and once visited by such a storm that everything was flooded and its fields buried under piles of sand and stones. Flames licking dark skies, the hills livid with hideous light, great pieces of mountain thundering down into ravines, the land riven from lake to river by terrestrial tremblings,—all this makes one think of the time when, before man had ever walked this earth, the big mountains, with belching of smoke and hissing of steam and shrieking, climbed angrily up from the bottom of the sea to make this lovely vale. Sometimes at sunset when black smoky clouds up between Myōkō and Kurohime are shot through with the fiery rays of the sunken sun and the low hills about the lake all look pale and frightened and the water goes red, one thinks of that far-off time and of that which even yet this little village is periodically called upon to endure.

But in literature, so far as it figures at all, Nojiri is pictured as a rare spot of quiet beauty. In the poetic old classics of Japan, it is not once mentioned, for in the Nara and Heian days when they were written, the far end of Nagano was so distant that it might just about as well have been in another world. But later, in Yedo days, an occasional writer, apart from Issa, passed that way. Such a one would speak of the fishing boats scattered over the water like bamboo-grass leaves, of fishermen calling to each other afar off as dusk closed down over the peaceful scene or of flocks of ducks or geese flying over the water. And he would always tell the old story of Usami Sadayuki, the faithful, who went down in the deep lake waters that the man he served might live and flourish.

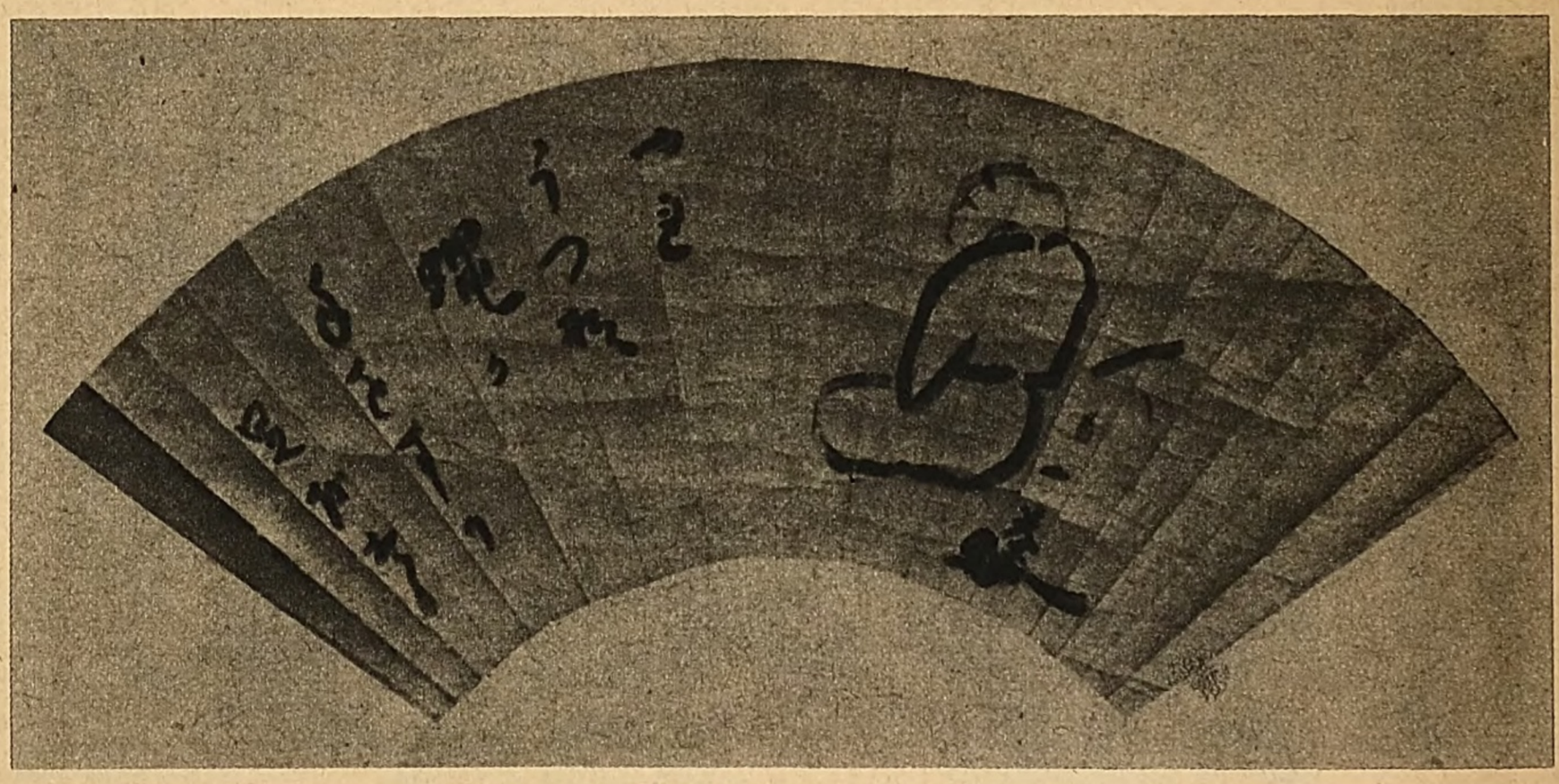
Issa celebrated this famous old story in the verse,

Aki kaze ni omakase môsu
ukimo kana
To winds of autumn,
It delivers up its all,
The duckweed floating.

Usami Sadayuki was castellain of the Castle of Nojiri, traces of which still exist on the hills that rise from the north side of the lake, and the faithful vassal of Uesugi Kenshin. Kenshin, who had just dispossessed his own brother and made himself the strong man of Echigo, had a brother-in-law named Nagao Masakage who could not be content with having Kenshin for liege lord, but needs must in his turn plot Kenshin's overthrow. So in 1564 Kenshin, enraged, told Sadayuki, and Sadayuki knew what he would do. He invited Masakage to come and see him in his castle by the lake, which he did with a following of fine young warriors, who disported themselves on the hill while Sadayuki took Masakage out in a boat to entertain him with a little fishing. And some say the boat was leaky and some that it was made of copper with a removable plug in the bottom, but whichever it was, it never came back to shore again, but went to the bottom, and as it sank, Sadayuki took Masakage firmly in his strong arms and went down with him struggling into the depths. Nobody knows what he said as he closed his arms about his master's terrified enemy, but one says it was that now his lord's wrongs were avenged, and another that he had long been the spirit of this lake and would now return to his own. And this last version takes us back to a tale which connects Sadayuki with the spirit lord of Lake Nojiri.

Sadayuki and Masakage are said to have sunk off Momi-ga-Saki, a wooded point extending out into the lake from the north shore. About half way in a straight line between this point and Nojiri village to the west lies a little island some 750 yards in circumference, the only island in the lake, called Biwajima (Lute Isle) from its shape like the Japanese lute, with the handle bending out in a long slender hook called Kotori-ga-Saki (Bird Point) to the northwest. The island is covered with big trees, those along the shores with fantastic branches extending far out over the water and making with their reflections the picture described in an old *no* piece as "fish climbing in the trees." It rises abruptly into a little hill, reached by a flight of stone steps climbing from a red *torii* by the water's edge opposite Nojiri, and is all one shady grove of cryptomerias, the biggest, a giant forked tree, thirty-six feet around. Under this tree on the highest point of the island stands an ancient shrine where the villagers and all sorts of visitors go to worship Benzaiten, the Indian goddess Saraswati, a river, wherefore the goddess of water, and by natural stages of development, of music, of eloquence, of genius, of happiness and finally of wealth, though the shrine is called Uga, a word meaning "crops" or "food" and is officially dedicated to Uga-no-Mitama-no-Kami and Ichikishima-Hime-no-Mikoto, two old Japanese deities of the Kojiki story, the former of whom has developed naturally into a god of happiness and wealth like Benzaiten and is the nominal god of the island of Chikubushima in Lake Biwa, while the latter is distinguished only as the nominal goddess of the island of Miyajima in the Inland Sea, both of which famous places are really devoted to the worship of Benzaiten. Now Benzaiten always carries a snake, a white one, and "Uga" is said to mean both "snake" and "angel" in Sanskrit. But the mixing up of these Shinto and Buddhist gods and snakes, and foxes as well, into one complex effort to find happiness is all too long a story to tell here. Suffice it that there is an image of Benzaiten in the Uga Shrine on Biwajima which is said to have been carved and installed there by Gyōgi, the famous synchronizing Buddhist priest, in 730, and that Sadayuki, when he was castellain of Nojiri Castle, was a great patron of the shrine and even changed the last character of his name from one meaning "beautiful" to one meaning "god." So people came to believe that Sadayuki was himself the god Uga and told a marvelous story in which his father, who desires a child, walks more than twenty miles from his home to the shrine and back every day for three years to pray for a son. And finally one day as he is turning away from the lake, he hears an infant's voice in the reeds by the water's edge and, looking, finds a baby boy, whom he puts in his bosom and carries home and raises as his son, and this gift of the god of the lake is but an embodiment of the god himself,—or herself, or itself, or what you will.

And this is only the merest beginning of all the complex and wonderful tales people tell of the spirit of the lake. Before the underbrush was trimmed out, Biwajima used to be full of snakes, and the spirit of the lake is supposed to be a snake, just as the spirits of all the lesser lakes in the whole district are supposed to be snakes. In ancient days men passing in boats over Ryūgū-ga-Fuchi (Dragon Palace Deep), the deepest place in the lake across the east arm from Momi-ga-Saki near Ryūgū-ga-Hana (Dragon Palace Point), the lake's longest and most beautiful promontory, thev heard music arising from the palace of the lord at the bottom there. Once a hardy young priest went down to find the palace and heard the music more and more distinctly the farther he went under water (an experience we have all had no doubt, in our time) and had to give up the attempt and return to the surface without having found it. The lord of this palace is supposed to be a snake with six heads. It is believed that if he ever develops a seventh, the lake will immediately dry up. Once a samurai walking by the lake was approached by a beautiful young woman who asked him to lend her his sword and, on receiving it, plunged into the water, the surface of which soon became red, and arose from the lake again and, thanking him for making it possible for her to revenge herself on her enemy, gave him a bamboo rod, which when he stood it up on the earth, spurted water. Once a man asleep in his house beside a pond not far away was visited in a dream by the snake lord of the pond, who asked him to put his sword on his roof that he might get it and go and fight with the spirit lord of Lake Nojiri, and the next day the sword was gone and the water of the lake turned red, and the sword, when it appeared again on the man's roof, had a nick in the blade.



A Fan Inscribed by Issa with the Verse,
Wait, don't strike that fly!
He's wringing his hands, there,
And wringing his feet.
and Signed with the Words, "The Man, too, by Issa"

In Kashiwabara nowadays one of the chief businesses, and one in which the living relatives of Issa engage, is the making of steel grass hooks, but the snake lord of Lake Nojiri is said not to like hard steel, and every family that ever tried making them in Nojiri has met with calamity. If a man is drowned in the lake, it is said to be because the snake lord has taken a fancy to him, and if his body floats up to the surface, that the fickle god has changed his mind. The god of the shrine on the island is jealous of happy married couples and will bring to watery grief one or the other of any pair that dares go out in a pleasure boat on his festival days in August. The many fires of the village are thought to be due to neglect of the god. Long ago Takao of Suginosawa offered a stand of gold gohei at the shrine, but in a day of poverty

(*Continued on Page 94*)

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CONSUMPTION is not an incurable disease. It seems incurable simply because ordinary makeshift drugs are taken for it. Otter's liver is full of nutriment and exterminates the tuberculosis baccilus. Otter's liver is the king of drugs efficacious against consumption.

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Latest Cure for Tuberculosis, Pleurisy and Peritonitis

This medicine improves without ill effect the resistance of the cell against tuberculous bacilli and immunizes the patient. It is even a cure for the disease in its advanced stages, its effect being evident within fifteen days.

Explanatory literature sent on application.

PRICE: 8 Yen (15 daily doses) Special 15 Yen
15 Yen (30 daily doses) Special 30 Yen

The Osaka Juzen Hospital Tubercular Institute

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Four Preeminent Druggists of Kyoto

Three Centuries Old

"SOKKOSAN"

You are assured a good circulation, a healthy body heat, and high spirits by the use of this medicine.

GOOD FOR

Neuralgia, Rheumatism, Ascites, Beri-beri, Paralysis, Diseases of the Uterus, Dizziness, Hydropsy, Lumbago, Spasm, Myelitis, Influenza and Bruises.

SHOZAEMON KUBOTA

Gojo, Nishino-toin-dori, Kyoto.

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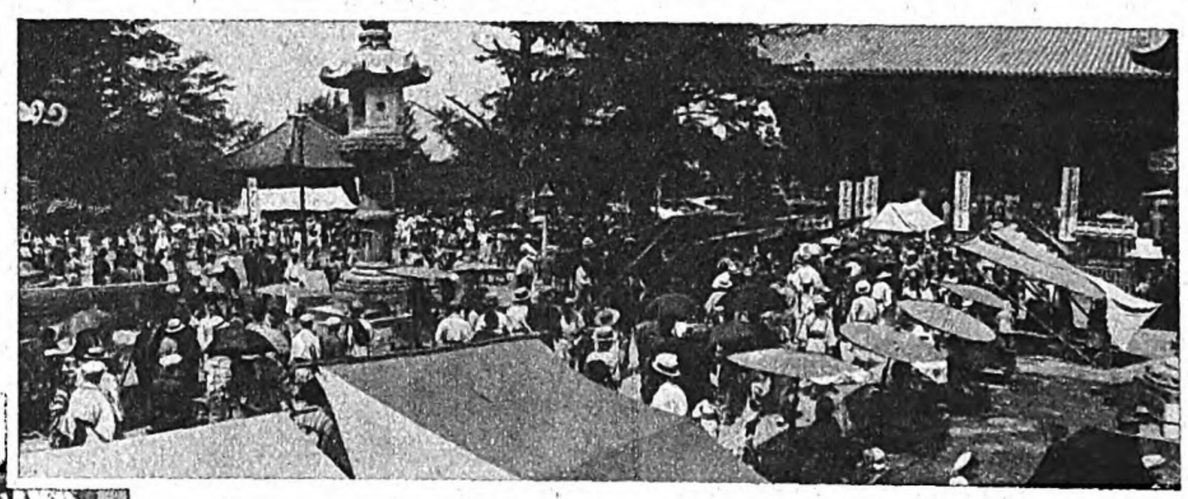
Asakusa, Center of Plebeian Amusements of Tokyo

ASAKUSA is to seekers of inexpensive amusement what Mecca is to Mohammedans. Rain or shine, weekdays as well as Sundays, endless throngs of men and women pour in and out of the show-land which seems to revel to the daily riotous jazz symphony of clattering geta, yelling appeals of the hawkers to the loitering public, samisen, drums, pounding pianos, and squealing fiddles. More than once the place has been literally wiped out of existence by big fires and earthquakes, but it has always been rebuilt with added attractions and on a larger scale than before. Nor has it suffered in the least from the incriminating remarks of moralists, the blighting contempt of snobs, and the stern behests of domineering wives for their meek husbands to keep away from its pulsating heart of gaiety. With incredible rapidity those zinc-roofed affairs which reared themselves up out of the debris of the 1923 earthquake-fire have been replaced by handsome movie palaces and regular theatres. Hard times have given up Asakusa as a downright apostate to economic laws as people flood the shows and suffocate the box-offices with money in spite of occasional spells of depression elsewhere.



The Daily Jam of Worshippers in Front of Asakusa Kwannon

The Famous Nakamise (Inner Shops), Asakusa, as Rebuilt After the Earthquake

So each day witnesses a big rush thither of people eager to have fun for reasonable prices. There are sushi-ya, ice cream parlours, sukiyaki places, eel grills, cafés, "foreign" restaurants, beer stalls, movies, variety halls, and theatres in a dense jumble. Every day from 10 a. m. till late at night the outer fringe of Asakusa Park is a scene of care-free commotion the like of which is not to be seen in the entire breadth and width of Japan. Dotonbori in Osaka and Shinkyogoku in Kyoto are the nearest approach to the pleasure-centre of the nation's capital, but among visitors to the former two places men in "happi coats" and women in work-a-day clothes are much less in evidence than among the clientele of the latter.

Preeminently, Asakusa believes in the masses and its unswerving affection for the teeming proletariat has been rewarded by the enviable fortune it has come by by charging them 30 sen apiece as admission to whichever show they choose to see. Once in the enchanted enclosure one inhales the air of warm fraternity together with the dust raised by the pedestrian fraternity. At a vaudeville show one accustomed to the chilly dignity of the stuck-up audiences at the seven-yen-per-head theatres in Tokyo is agreeably surprised at the friendly disregard of formality with which comedians and spectators exchange bantering reparteé between the stage and the galleries. "Chuck your double barreled megaphone," comes from the pit a graphic allusion to a story-teller who talks through his rather spacious nostrils. "Tell that to your wife," retorts the piqued artist in the direction whence the first disparaging remark came. "Drop your mask, lady," demands a tipsy member of the sweltering fraternity of a songstress who overpowders her face. "You'd look nicer if you hid your disgrace with a mask," the sharp-tongued lady reminds the critic, who now knowing the preparedness of his fair opponent, desists from making further personal comments, and his admission of defeat provokes a round of loud applause and still louder laughter from his fellows. Next in the program is a unique demonstration of physical prowess. A husky ex-wrestler, for he retains the brush-like bundle of hair on his head after the fashion of his former colleagues, strolls stolidly to the stage and announces to the audience his mission, which is to break an empty cement cask with the pressure he brings to bear upon it with his forehead and which he puts through to the entire satisfaction of the gasping crowd. "Now, ladies and gentlemen," says he before he walks out of the spotlight, "what you have seen just now shows beyond doubt that no harm could ever be done even to the most vulnerable part of our bodies, no amount of rough treatment could crack a brain if one has proper physical training." A person of an argumentative turn of mind might not subscribe to the moral: a doubt might be entertained as to whether it was the ex-wrestler's vaunted impregnable seat of wisdom that brought him to the calling of smashing empty cement barrels day after day.

One hour in a variety-hall literally packed to the doors and in the heat of July 16 makes one yearn for the fresh air outside. The day is a great feté day in the Japanese calendar—for the living and for the dead alike. It is called the *O-bon* or simply *Bon*; the day is dedicated by the millions of Buddhists here to the feasting of their deceased kith and kin. On this particular day each year, so the tradition has it, all the spirits are released either from the endless succession of entertainments in Paradise (Gokuraku, as the Buddhists call it) or from the unceasing agonies in the other section of the world beyond. And along with departed souls are remembered men and women in domestic service, *bantos* and juvenile apprentices, and others to whom the feté day for the Spirits comes as a glorious release from toil. Keen, expectant glances are shot from the eyes of these holiday-makers at the multicoloured billboards put up above the entrances of the houses of amusement. The programs of the *kabuki* plays yield, one and all, to the unearthly spell of the day thus set apart.

The newly built Tokiwaza towers high above the rest of the theatres in this part of Asakusa. It has the imposing appearance of a dreadnaught in a sea of submarines. Here a ghostly play in two acts is being played by such fine actors as Ichikawa Yaozo, Kitamura Rokuro, and Ichikawa Kamezo. The curtain is drawn aside (it does not go up at our conservative theatres) to reveal the home of a tough, wife-beating gambler who is shown in his wont of maltreating the good woman because of her failure to raise funds for his illegal hobby. Driven to despair by the black future she foresees under the hopeless circumstances, as well as by the brutalities of the scoundrel, she cuts short her tired life by leaping into a deep well near the house. The interact of about ten minutes, unusually short compared with the long interludes elsewhere, marks a lapse of twelve months after the tragic event. Besides, it happens to be the festival day for the Spirits, and at the home of the gambler the first anniversary of the death of his former hapless wife is celebrated by plentiful offerings before the tablet bearing her name and by hanging up a beautiful Bon paper lantern in the sitting room. Man without principles that he is, the gambler has a new wife who, as a matter of fact, is no other than a sister of the dead wife. Whatever likeness there was between the two sisters seems to have remained skin-deep, as beyond the close resemblance the living sister bears to the deceased, the two have nothing in common. Occasional innuendoes whispered in her conversation with her crooked consort refer to the active part she took in harassing her sister to death. Soon it is night and begins to rain. Somehow the man feels a mysterious chill creeping into his black heart: his eyes see things which raise the hair on his head. Just to brighten up his drooping spirits, he suggests to his wife that they should dine out at a nearby restaurant together. The invitation gladly accepted by the woman, they make ready for the outing. The gambler waits at the door for his wife, who goes into the hall for an umbrella. The lights near the stage go out at once save for a sickly bluish blur which shows the man grumbling at the tardiness of his wife. "Pshaw, she is slow", he complains for the second time and starts at the umbrella spread out to take him in. "You frighten me, dear, by stealing close to me. Why don't you say something." With this angry remark he snatches away the umbrella from the woman and beholds with horrow the ghost of his dead wife with a shock of disheveled hair half revealing its pallid face. Stumbling, gesticulating, and shouting, he rushes into the hall and comes back with a curving knife with which he stabs the spectre, only to find his new wife lying dead from the wound. In pursuit of the revengeful phantom the renegade falls into the same well in which his first wife was drowned exactly a year before. The awesome play comes to an end leaving the audience in a silence far from comfortable. The electric fans which are now set in motion produce ghastly, hushed and altogether unpleasant sounds as they whirl. With the quick silver standing near the 90 degree mark on the thermometer, the spectators forget the heat wave for the time being: the sweat that exudes from their brows does not necessarily well up because of the rising temperature. One is tempted to suspect this strange psychological effect as the producers' motive for throwing in a play or two of a gruesome nature in their summer shows year after year. But the theatrical managers know better; they would not let their patrons leave the theatres with their minds peopled with horrid creations. The gloomy flavour which may linger after the phantom play is over is soon dispelled by the dazzling splendour of Musume Dojoji, a posture-dance that follows. The stage presents a gorgeous setting artistically depicting Spring with ubiquitous cherry flowers, a striking contrast to the gloomy spectacle preceding. A beautifully dressed *shirabyoshi*, as *geisha* were called in the bygone days, dances like a butterfly to the lively music of *samisen*, tomtoms, flutes, jingling bells and what not. Thus drunk with a tasty mixture of gloom and gaiety, the people empty the theatre content.

If the younger set among the Asakusa enthusiasts prefer more modern, snappy entertainment to our classical shows they are not to be blamed. The irresistible tide of modernity is taking them farther and farther away from our old moorings: they have become in fact incapable of appreciating what their forbears used to find an inviriable source of amusement. To the younger generation, for example, a samisen twangs without producing any pleasant effect. Obsessed with the restless spirit of the new age they find the kabuki plays tiresome nonsense. Douglas Fairbanks, Tom Mix, Clara Bow, Adolphe Menjou, and other bright stars of American moviedom are more familiar to them

Movie Street at Asakusa

than the leading actors in the world of make-believe in their own country. So they allow themselves to be jammed in the cinema palaces which spring up with the appalling virility of mush rooms in the rich soil of Tokyo's show and. To get a firmer hold on the minds of mobos and mogas, the movies have added to the silver screen a new attraction in the form of revues. Their enterprise has met with loyal response. At one of these establishments catering to youthful pleasure seekers, a dapper young gentleman dressed in the height of fashion is being graced with a blinding spotlight. With a carefree gait he paces up and down the stage and breaks his cane in two by accident. The disconcerting situation is aggravated by a greeting from a comely lass in a one-piece dress overtopped by a boyish head crowned with one of those broad-brimmed summer hats. To his great astonishment she introduces herself—in a bewitching manner carefully copied from the American films—as a "stick-girl". For fear of great injustice being done to the respectable profession of the ladies of her sort, let it be explained at once that the term "stick-girls" has nothing to do with girls who stick, but is applied to a set of girls who earn their living

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by offering themselves as companions for men on a saunter along the Ginza at an agreed to fee. There is nothing derogatory to the dignity of the profession. The quaint appelation was coined on account of a certain analogy between a cane and a fair walking companion. So much for elucidation of a salient aspect of the changing age in which Japan finds herself. To make a long story short, the young cavalier takes the lady to a tea-room where they indulge in a pleasant chat over cups of coffee. One thing strikes the critically disposed person in the revue. The smart copyer of western culture keeps his straw hat on while he hobnobs with his sweet companion sitting close to him. In his hurry to catch up with the kaleidoscopic metamorphosis from a hundred per cent. Japan to a hundred per cent. Americanized nation, he has neglected a little book on "How to behave in the Presence of Ladies."

It is 11 o'clock. The hands of the clock move apace in a place like Asakusa. Out of the show houses pour torrents of humanity which feed and swell the mighty main current near the main street. At midnight the din and whirl settles down to the quiet of the night. A few dozens of homeless men loiter on : some of them are seen sprawling full length on the benches strewn in the open space between the Senso-ji (Asakusa-dera), a Buddhist temple, and the scene of tumult in the earlier hours of the day. It is the same sad story told and retold in big cities all over the world, save for the difference that in our country the miseries to which unfortunates are subjected are unspeakably more intense than in other vortexes of ruin. With the multitudinous noises dead and all the lights out except the weak blurs of the solitary street lamps, the loafers huddle their tired bodies on the benches, gaze intently into the winking stars, and aresoon heard snoring.

All are not asleep, though. The palm readers and similar fortune-tellers

Fortune Tellers' Booths, Back of Asakusa Kwannon

do the better part of their day's business after midnight. And what weird creatures they are ! A venerable-looking old man in a discoloured black haori with five crests in white on it is looking through a magnifying glass into the future of a fashionably dressed woman. By the way she wears her broad silk sash and the way she does her hair, one can easily tell her occupation. She is either a geisha or a waitress at a tea-house, of which there are many in the neighbourhood. Matrimony promises her a haven of refuge from her turbulent life and she is here to consult the seer on this important theme. "What ?" querries the palmist in a reproachful tone, "You are 32 and are thinking of getting married ? By doing so, you will marry into a series of bad luck." The woman produces fifty sen out of a bright coloured cloth wallet, lays the coin furtively on the improvised desk, and fades into the night and hopeless existence, of which she may never have a chance to wash her hands clean. Another ancient figure is stooping over a piece of paper with the name of his youthful consultant written out in Chinese characters. The number of strokes in each letter is weighed carefully by the oracle, who, after performing various mathematical calculations, arrives at the conclusion that for a man with a name with so many strokes in it the fourth year of Showa spells disaster : whatever such a man does by way of business will end in calamities. The young man is told to make a total blank of the current year, as if he could afford to idle away several months without doing aught to keep his body and soul together.

One leaves the Coney Island of Tokyo to its slumber. At the Asakusa subway stop the turn stiles spin drowsily as the people from the all-night restaurants come in on their homeward trips. A number of large lettered notices are put up on the walls ; some are warnings against pickpockets and others give detailed directions as to how to drop a 10 sen coin into the slot and how to make one's way to the platform, while others tell how dangerous it is to crane one's neck out of the open windows of the cars while running. These precautions are scrupulously followed by Tokyo citizens, among whom the underground means of transit still remains a novelty and who are still wondering whether it is a wise thing to have in a quake haunted country, despite the categorical guarantees made by the constructors to disarm unwarranted fears. Dozens of pretty paper lanterns, an Oriental touch to the Western creation, light the steps that lead up to the entrance of Uyeno Railway Station at the other end of the subway line.

Most things may come and go in Japan, a country undergoing rapid and violent changes. Yet Asakusa as an elesian land for the working masses, as well as for the swelling rank and file of the jobless, will surely hold its own against the battering of the mania for all things new.

Japan Celebrates Light's Golden Jubilee

FIFTY years ago Thomas A. Edison invented the incandescent lamp. The world has been celebrating this event since September 1st this year and will continue to celebrate it till the end of November. A little earlier a nationwide celebration was held in the United States, where a week was devoted to showing respect and admiration for Edison. The exercises of the week were carried out under the direction of a committee with President Hoover as chairman and Messrs. Rockefeller and Henry Ford as members. Incidentally Japan had a share in Edison's invention, as the first carbonic filaments made by him in a New Jersey town were made of a piece of bamboo brought from Yawata, near Kyoto, in Japan. Presumably on this account, Japanese electric men were invited to be guests at the celebration in the United States.

Japan is also participating in this world-wide celebration of Light's Golden Jubilee, and such societes and associations as the Electrical Society, the Association of Electrical Experts, the Electric Light Association, the Society for the Diffusion of Electricity to Homes, the Association for the Electrification of Farming, etc. have together organized a Light's Golden Jubilee Celebration Society. The Society is headed by Count Keigo Kiyoura as honorary president and Baron Yoshio Sakatani as honorary vice-president. The members of the committee are Mr. Keijiro Inouye, president ; Messrs. Yoshijiro Ishikawa, Kenkichi Hagihara, Shotaro Aoki, Tonejiro Hiratsuka, vice-presidents ; and Prince Iyesato Tokugawa, Mayor Torikiri of Tokyo, Viscount Kentaro Kaneko, Baron Koi Furuichi, Baron Heinosuke Go and a number of financial magnates, trustees. The celebration begins with a grand banquet which the Electrical Society will give on Oct. 21, the day on which fifty years ago the incandescent lamp first lit the world. The society has planned, in addition, to have popular lecture-meetings and essay prize contests in connection with the celebration. The Association of Electrical Experts and the Electric Light Association will hold lectures on electricity, on the 3rd and 10th of October.

The latter has worked out the following program :

1. Sending by telegram congratulations to Edison.

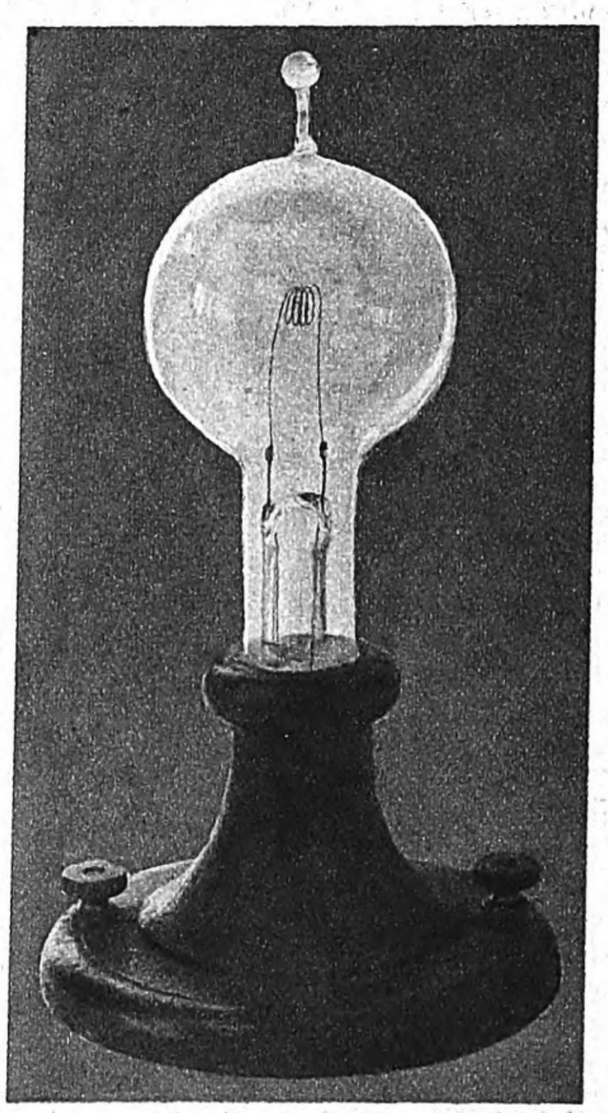
2. Holding an electric light exhibition between the 21st and 28th of Oct.

3. Having an exhibition of sky signs from Oct. 10th to the end of November at Hibiya Park.

4. Preparing posters and handbills ; illuminating leading department stores; holding contests in show-window decoration ; erecting a memorial arch, etc., etc.

The Society for the Diffusion of Electricity to Homes has an interesting program, which includes an electric exhibition from Oct. 21st to 28th and the building of 16 houses fully equipped with electricity, which will be open to the public for nearly a month from the middle of October. Lecture-meetings will be given by the Association in furtherance of the electrification of farming in Yamanashi and Gumma prefectures.

The celebration in the Western cities, Osaka, Kyoto and Kobe, will be conducted under the auspices of the Kwansai Branch of the Electrical Society. A special committee for it has been appointed, with sub-committees on general affairs, lectures, exhibitions, shop illumination and planning. The program in this part of Japan also includes varied items: a large celebration gathering at the Osaka public hall, speeches by radio, lecture-meetings, an electric exhibition, shop illumination, show-window decoration contests, the opening to the public of electric



The First Incandescent Lamp Made by Edison, in Which the Filament is Made of Japanese Bamboo

laboratories in colleges for a specified period, the publication of a memorial stamp, night-time flights of illuminated planes, the preparing of posters and handbills, lighting by high candle-power lamps, etc., etc. Of all these items the exhibition to be held in Osaka especially calls attention. At the exhibition there will be such exhibits as photos of electrified Osaka, means of lighting from ancient times to the present, electric lamps in different stages of development, exhibits signifying the relation of electricity to medical jurisprudence, electric boilers, electric signs, television, illuminating apparatus, etc. One interesting feature will be monkey dolls which, by means of electricity, will play jazz. The Electrical Society, the Society for the Diffusion of Electricity to Homes, and the Electric Light Association are cooperating with the Osaka City Office in this exhibition.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE ELECTRIC INDUSTRY IN JAPAN

Japan embarked on the electric industry in 1886, nine years after the invention of the incandescent lamp, beginning with the construction of a power house by the Tokyo Electric Co. This was followed by the inauguration of the Kobe Electric Co. in 1887, and later the opening of the Kyoto Electric and Osaka Electric Cos. But these companies had bad business in the first years of their existence, because electric lamps were still a luxury in the Japanese home, where oil and gas lamps were almost exclusively in use. It was, therefore, as late as 1903 that Japan's electric industry was firmly established. But its development ever since has been remarkable. In 1903 the electric lamps in use in the country numbered 330,000 and the entire current used amounted to 4,160,000 c.p., while in 1927 the number of lamps had increased a hundred fold to 32,300,000 and the current one hundred and fifty fold to 600,000,000 c.p.

The use of electricity is now more general in Japan than in any other country, but she falls far behind the United States in candle-power and number of lamps per head or per household. The following figures furnish a comparison between Japan and the United States in this connection :

	Number of Lamps	Candle-Power	Lamps per House	Candle-Power per Head
United States	110,000,000	44,000,000,000	5.5	400
Japan	35,000,000	630,000,000	0.5	6

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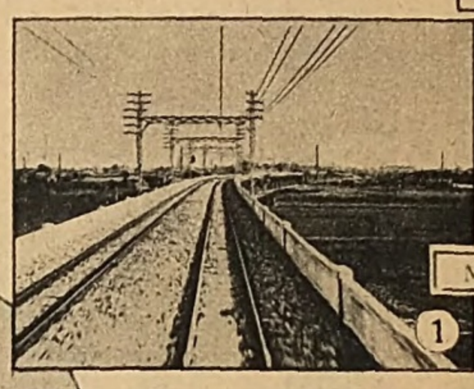
HANWA ELECTRIC RAILWAY

OSAKA ⟷ HAMADERA / FUCHU

Line to Wakayama to be Opened to Traffic by June, 1930.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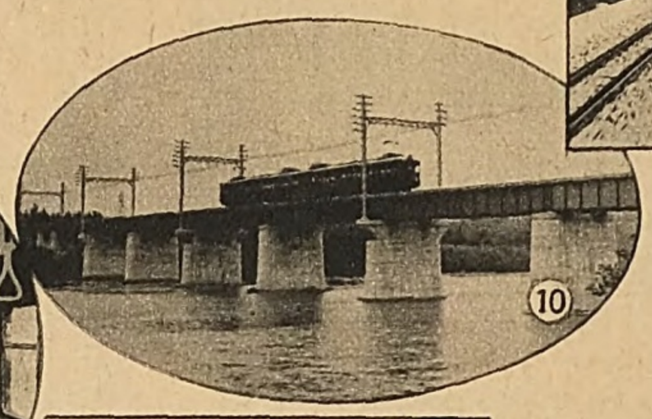
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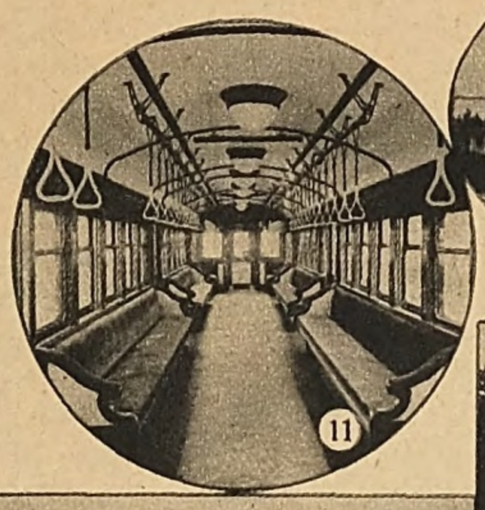
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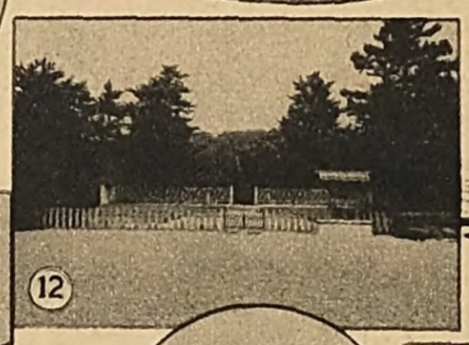
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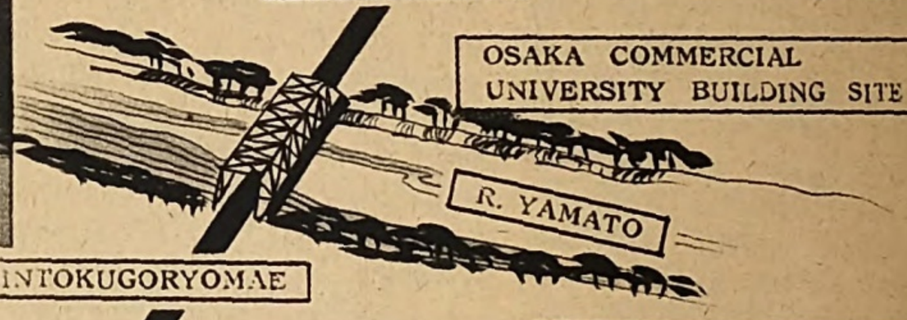
OSAKA COMMERCIAL UNIVERSITY BUILDING SITE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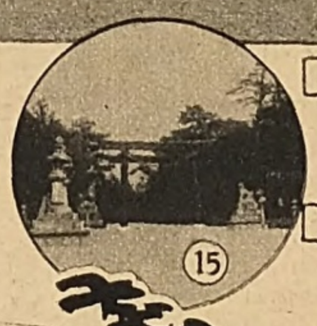
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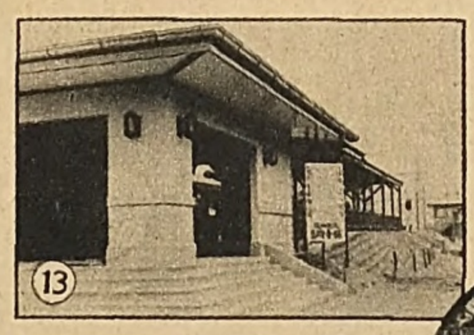
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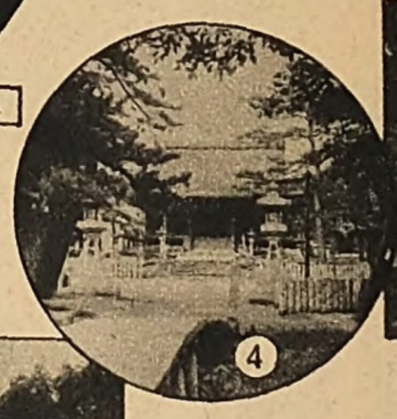
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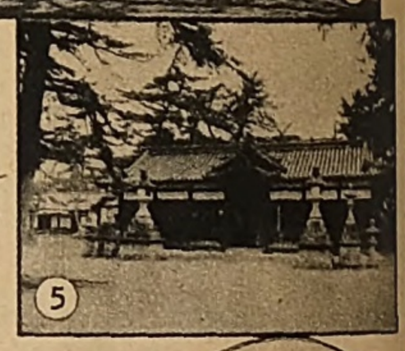
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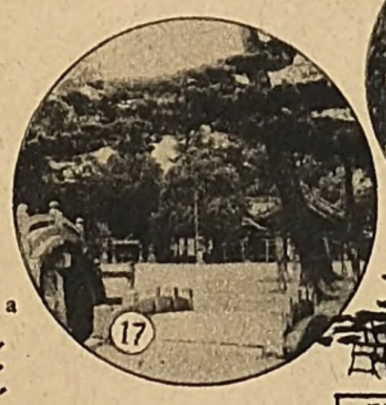
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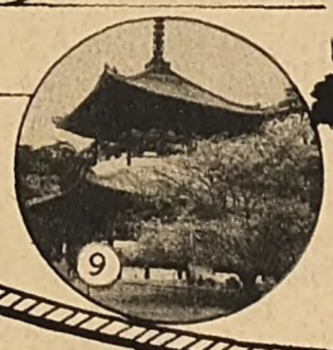
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WAKAYAMA

KOKAWA

WAKANOURA

14. The Outside of a Steel Car
Length 63′ 4″
Width 9′ 6″
Height 14′ 4″
Weight, 46 tons
4 motors (each 200 h.p.)
Automatic door control
Twenty electric heaters per car
12. Mausoleum of the Emperor Nintoku
13. Hamadera Station
15. Otori Shrine
16. Inari Shrine of Kuzunoha
17. Izumianashi Shrine

PHOTOS :

1. Elevated Road
2. Kwannon Temple of Abiko
3. Mozu Hachiman Shrine
4. Ebara Monju Temple
5. Hijiri Shrine
6. Sefuku Temple
7. Izumi Inoue Shrine
8. Kokawa Temple
9. Negoro Temple
10. Bridge over the River Yamato
11. The Inside of a Car Seating capacity, 140.

Mr. K. Kimura, President

The Hanwa Electric Railway.

The Hanwa Railway connects the cities of Osaka and Wakayama with super-speed electric cars of the latest type. The construction of such a railway has long been desired by the general public.

It starts from Tennoji, on the south side of Osaka City, where it connects with the Kwansai and Joto lines of the Government Railways. At the terminus of Wakayama it connects with the western branch of the Kisei line, thus establishing a complete connection with the Government railway lines giving facilities for the through transit of passengers and freight.

The Hanwa Electric Railway Company was established in April, 1926, with a capital of ¥20,000,000, of which ¥12,000,000 is paid up. The main line between Osaka and Wakayama covers 38 miles, and there are branch line between Ohtori and Hamadera (one mile) and between Yamaguchimura and Kokawa (9 miles 23 chains), making the total mileage about 48 miles.

The following are the principal construction works along the lines.

The elevated road at Tennoji (1 mile 35 chains); the bridge over the River Yamato (655 feet); the tunnel at Onoyama (0.96 mile) and five other tunnels; and the bridge over the river Kinokawa (1580 feet). Along the lines there are a number of places famous for beautiful scenery and historical interest. As the line runs through high land districts, there are many residential quarters. The districts through which the lines pass produce rice, onions, oranges, etc. Cotton weaving mills are also situated near the line, and the transportation of goods is abundant. The Hanwa Railway has therefore become an important line for freight. The lines connecting Osaka and Fuchu, and Osaka and Hamadera were opened on the 18th of July, 1929.

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Aboard the Graf Zeppelin

Aerial Trip from Friedrichshafen to Tokyo

Kichinai Kitano,
Staff Member, The Osaka Asahi

"SO this is your first Zeppelin trip? Why, it's wonderful! The best in the world, I can tell you!" In hilarious excitement William B. Leeds, America's popular multi-millionaire and one of my fellow passengers, turned to me, patting my shoulder in a friendly way. His eyes brightened. His hands became busy with a huge Carl-Zeiss field-glass. The Graf Zeppelin had just left the ground, rising straight 125 meters high, with utmost gracefulness, into the twilight summer sky of Friedrichshafen. The huge air-liner had started on its historic non-stop flight toward Tokyo. Even through the drone of the powerful Maybach motors, the shouting of "bon voyage" by the enthusiastic crowds below and the singing of "Deutschland Ueber Alles," sung by my Japanese friends, floated to us. In a fraction of a second we were over Friedrichshafen and Lake Konstanz, and the whole country below, glimmering mistily, looked like a map.

The take-off, unlike that of a passenger aeroplane which comes after noisy trundlings and bumpings along the turf, was almost magically beautiful, according me a unique sensation with its wonderful calmness. The twenty passengers, exultant and happy, were all at the windows of the lounge, gazing out at the distant green hills. Their nervousness had vanished in excitement.

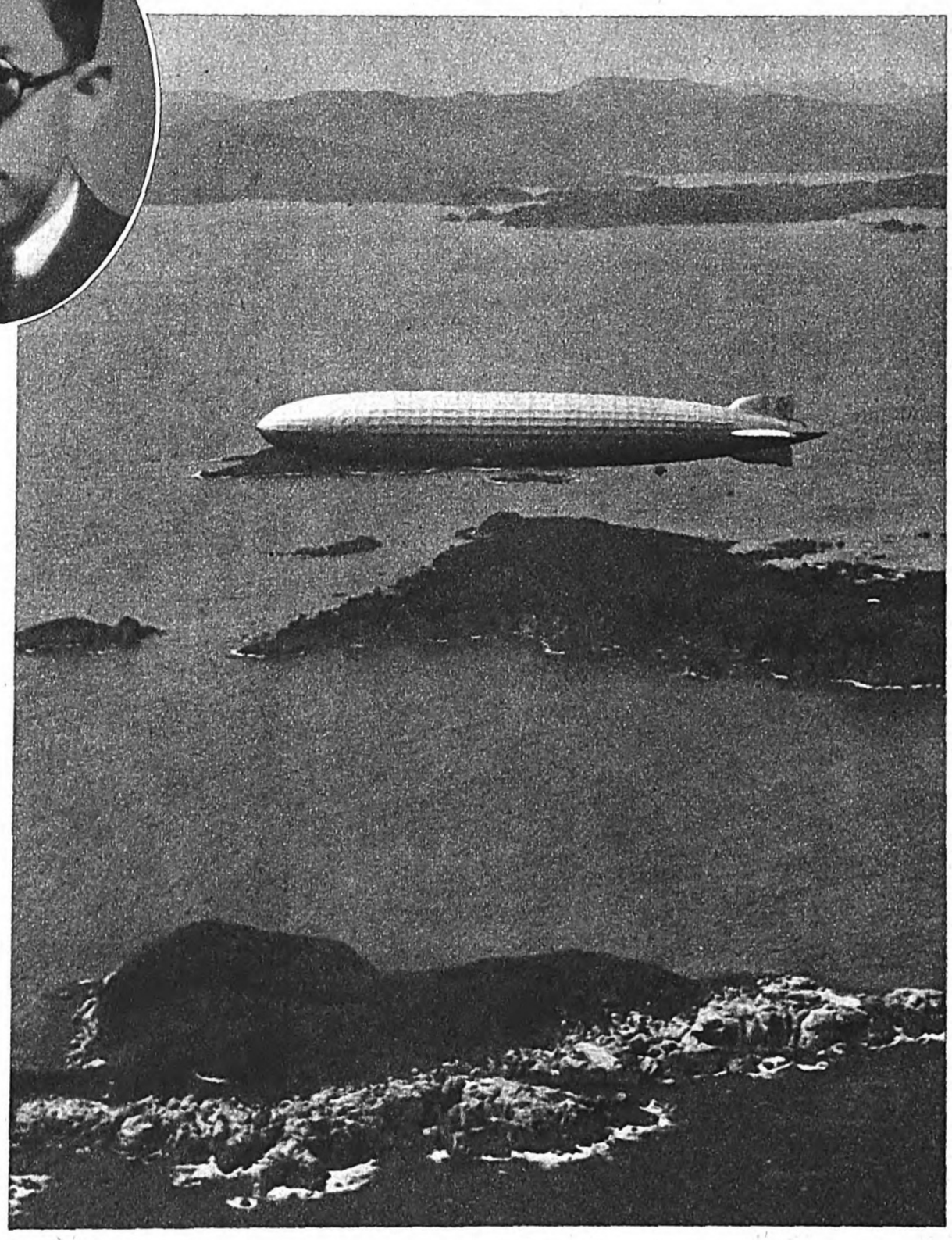
"Now we are on our way. Our next stop is Tokyo!" Captain von Schiller, one of the Three Musketeers under Dr. Hugo Eckener, coming into the crowded salon from the next navigating room, announced in a joyous mood like a railroad conductor. Everybody suddenly realized the immensity of the flight, and the world became extremely small overnight. But Captain von Schiller seemed casual about the whole thing. Our flight to Tokyo thus began. Then William Leeds greeted me with a friendly smile in a corner of the lounge and assured me that the Zeppelin trip, just started, was the most enjoyable and comfortable way of modern travel, trying to dispel any nervousness or apprehension his Japanese co-passenger might feel. Leeds came to Friedrichshafen from Lakehurst on the Graf a few days before and could certainly tell me what a Zeppelin trip was like.

What the multi-millionaire assured me proved entirely true despite my early misgivings. I was told often, before going on board, that the airship would spin and toss as it proceeded and that the passengers would suffer from constant air-sickness. Few seemed to accept the well-advertised story concerning the remarkable stability of the Graf Zeppelin. Many seemed to fear that I was risking my life. However, life aboard the Graf Zeppelin was thoroughly enjoyable and happy. Throughout the voyage nobody felt even the least qualm. The motion of a big air liner like the Zep was so even and regular that the passengers were never aware of its tremendous speed. With excellent meals, choice drinks and good coffee, and with an everchanging panorama below, gorgeous and entrancing, every hour of the day aboard had its own interest. Passengers could, as in a club or hotel, chat, laugh, sing, write and play cards, thanks to the entire absence of strain, discomfort, instability and nervousness. After dinner there was the gramophone music, to which some of the passengers even danced in a happy mood,—a mile up in the air! Marvelously secure and wonderfully modern was this Zeppelin trip. Save when we glanced out of the window, we scarcely had any sense of being up in the sky. And the general verdict of the passengers was that Zeppelin travel rivals and even excells all other means of journeying in its enjoyment, comfort and fascination.

It was gratifying that the two greatest newspaper organizations in the Far East, *The Asahi* and *The Mainichi*, could co-operate, in their own fields, in the brilliant success of the Graf Zeppelin's Germany-Tokyo flight. The two noted Japanese newspaper organizations obtained the exclusive press rights of the flight story for Japan and its dependencies, and through this agreement I was given the inestimable privilege of being among the picked passengers from Germany to Japan as representative of *The Asahi*. Besides the two Japanese newspapermen—Mr. Enchi, of *The Mainichi*, and myself—there were on board able representatives of the Hearst papers in America, Sherl, Ullstein and the "Frankfurter Zeitung" in Germany, and "Le Matin" of Paris. We were a tireless, inquisitive and incessantly active crew. Many of us slept at odd hours during the day and night, always getting up before dawn and sitting wide-awake till late at night. Picked journalists in America and Europe competed with one another in missing nothing, making notes, consulting maps and typing dispatches. We flooded the ship's radio station with messages and wearied the three energetic operators to death. Karl von Wiegand, who headed the Hearst delegation, was amazingly hard-working; Dr. Kauder, of Ullstein, very reserved, was never excited, while von Eschwege, of Sherl, sensitive to every little thrill, hustled in a typical American way. Sir Hubert Wilkins, the famous Antarctic explorer, pinch-hitting for Hearst newspapers, always stood at the window of the lounge, observing intently and taking notes. Wilkins was perhaps the quietest of all and the earliest riser every morning. Lady Drummond Hay, the only woman passenger and another Hearst journalist of polished manners, was exceedingly modest and popular. She started her daily work at 4 or 5 every morning and was always seen writing something on the typewriter in her cabin. We were an international group, representing the greatest newspaper organizations in three continents. Everybody did his best to report the progress of the superb flight, which the entire world was following with anxious attention.

The other passengers were always solicitious and jumped easily at every little thrill, with the exception of three naval observers—Commander Charles E. Rosendahl, ex-skipper of the U.S. Navy dirigible Los Angeles, Lieut. J. C. Richardson, of the U. S. Navy, and Commander N. Fujiyoshi, ex-skipper of the ill-fated Japanese Navy dirigible N3. With ample air experience they were always cool-headed. Commander Rosendahl, an affable gentleman of no soldierly ostentations, slept and rested well, reading books with much gusto. He told me that he had at last found enough time to devour books. Commander Fujiyoshi, of Japan, exceedingly modest and industrious, was also a good mixer, and it so happened that Commanders Rosendahl and Fujiyoshi were both survivors of airship disasters—Rosendahl have survived the Shenandoah wreck and Fujiyoshi having been miraculously saved in the explosion of the Japanese airship N3. They were alertly observant and were lavish in their praises of the magnificent behaviour of the dirigible. William Leeds and Joachim Rickard, of Boston, both pleasant personalities, were thrill-seekers. When the Zep flew within a few hundred miles of the Arctic Circle, the day broke earlier in these northern latitudes, and the exquisite beauty of daybreak in Noman's land in northern Siberia defied description. At 2:30 o'clock thousands of square miles of rugged swamp land, discolored and desolate, with no sign of human habitation, were lighted by the first auroral rays of daybreak. Leeds, Rickard and myself remained in the salon till dawn Saturday (August 17), shivering with the freezing cold. The glorious picture which momentarily increased in its splendor was too extraordinary and interesting for us to crawl into bed. But Leeds was so fascinated that he dreamed of a hunting trip in this desolate region, telling me that he would some day charter, with his friends, an airship of the Zep type and come this way to hunt wild animals. Then the young millionaire and Rickard raided the ship's miniature kitchen, searched the ice-box and crammed their hungry stomachs with whatever they could grab!

The Graf Zeppelin which left Friedrichshafen at 4:35 a.m. (German time), August 15, appeared over the city of Tokyo at 4:45 p.m. (Japanese time),



The Graf Zeppelin Flying over Kinkazan, the First Picture of the Big Airship in Japan, Taken by a Staff Photographer From an Asahi Plane. Oval: Mr. K. Kitano

Dr. Eckener Broadcasting Greetings to the Japanese People from JOAK, Tokyo, with the Doll Presented to Him by the Broadcasting Corporation

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Dr. Eckener at a Reception Given by the Premier at His Official Residence. At. Dr. Eckener's Right Are Premier Hamaguchi and Minister of Communications Koizumi

August 19. The graceful silver bird looming large and cruising the beautiful summer skies of the Empire's capital, with her five motors throbbing powerfully, presented a strange and thrilling spectacle to the whole populace, for no airship of her size had ever before cruised over the city. Everybody rushed out into the street or went up on some roof and craned his neck to greet this strange and giant visitor in the sky. Everybody shouted "Banzai." Everybody waved his hat or hand with emotion. Everybody was fascinated at the sight of the graceful silver form. The wonderful flight caught the imagination of the entire population. Tokyo went mad with frantic excitement.

Friedrichshafen on Thursday morning and Tokyo on Monday afternoon. From wooded Germany to the beautiful shores of Japan, via Lithuania, Russia and Siberia, 6,880 miles in 99 hours and 40 minutes! The airship conquered the Ural mountains while we passengers joyously chatted over cups of tea. It traversed unknown northern Siberia, blazing a trail for air-liners in the future over a boundless expanse of uninhabited regions near the Arctic Circle. It was a magnificent flight in which history has been made again and in which the Graf's endurance and power of fighting its way through every kind of weather has been eloquently vindicated. However, besides being history-making from a scientific and mechanical point of view, it was a spectacular undertaking of tremendous international interest and has succeeded in drawing the world closer and in helping build up international goodwill and understanding.

Our flight has been so fully described in the papers in every country that there is little left for me to add, unless it be from my own experience aboard the Graf, that none need be afraid of boarding an airship of the Zeppelin type and that passengers are rewarded with a most pleasant and fascinating trip. The Germany-Tokyo flight, under the command of Dr. Eckener, assisted by such able men as Captains Lehmann, Fleming and von Schiller, was enough to prove the Zeppelin's extraordinary stability and power and their superiority over aeroplanes for long distance flights. The success of the Graf Zeppelin's round-the-world flight, an exploit imperishable in the history of aviation, should be heralded as a technical demonstration of the practicability of regular international airship service in the near future. A pleasure cruise in the air aboard a giant dirigible like the Graf is no longer a utopian idea. The world will see that such cruises will be as popular and common as Cook's tours in a few years.

Dr. Eckener at a Reception Given in His Honour at the Imperial Hotel

(Continued from Page 25)

Old Tales from Japanese Mythology

"The string which pierced the red bead was beautiful enough,
"But how lovely were you yourself, a white bead!"

Hoori-no-Mikoto replied with these words:

"That pretty maiden with whom I lived
"In that beautiful mansion beneath the sea,
"I will not forget through eternity."

Ugayafukiaezu-no-Mikoto later married Tamayori-Hime. They had four children, the youngest of whom later became the first Emperor, Jimmu Tenno.

Fuji-yama and Tsukuba-yama

The sun sank behind the hills and darkness fell over the land when the god of the ancestors arrived at Fuji-yama, on his round of visits to the various deities. He begged the god of Fuji-yama for a night's lodging, but the latter refused to listen to him, saying,

"I am holding a festival tonight in celebration of the new rice crop which has just been harvested and cannot take in any one. I must refuse you admittance."

The god of the ancestors complained with tears in his eyes:

"Why do you refuse to let me in? For this, you shall suffer from the cold, the snow, and the frost, both in winter and in summer. Nobody will climb this mountain, and nobody will offer you tribute."

He resumed his journey and soon arrived at Tsukuba-yama. There he again asked for a night's lodging. The god of Tsukuba-yama explained that he, too, was observing a little festival in celebration of the harvest, but did not refuse him.

The god of Tsukuba-yama offered the tired guest food and drinks, and worshipped him. The god of the ancestors was much pleased, and sang a song:

"My beloved descendant,
"And his magnificent palace!
"Forever like the heavens, earth, sun, and moon,
"He shall be blessed by all people.
"They will bring offerings of food and drink;
"Yearly, and daily, he shall prosper,
"For a thousand, nay ten thousand years."

And thus it is that snow falls on Fuji-yama all the year round, making it difficult for people to scale her. Tsukuba-yama, on the other hand, is the mountain of recreation and enjoyment, where large numbers of people still ascend, dance, or wed.

Drawing the Provinces Closer Together

In the province of Izumo there once lived a god named Tsunu, who exclaimed:

"This province of Izumo has always been a narrow piece of plain. It is still a young land. It has been so since the opening of the country. It is, therefore, necessary to bring some land from the outside and enlarge this province."

He examined a cape on the peninsula of Korea.

"There is an extra piece of land there," he shouted, and with the aid of a hoe and a rope, he tried to pull this land over to Izumo.

"Come, slowly like a boat," he called as he pulled on the rope, and the land came.

Then he looked northward, and similarly drew to Izumo the districts of "Saki" and "Yonami," and the cape of "Tsutsu" from the Hokuriku provinces. Izumo was in this way expanded. Besides the original narrow strip of lowland, it now had mountains and hills. The province became a fertile land.

The Angel's Garment

There was a beautiful fountain on the top of a mountain called Hiji-yama, which was located at a place called Hiji, in the district of Tamba, the province of Tango. Every once in a while lovely angels came down and bathed in this fountain.

In the village of Hiji lived an aged man called Wasana, with his wife. One day these two aged persons went to the fountain and hid the garment of an angel. Eight angels were then bathing. Seven of them put on their garments and flew back to heaven. But the one whose clothes had been hidden, had to remain in the fountain. The old man in a pleading voice, said:

"Pray, please consent to become our child."

"I am embarrassed now that I am left alone on this earth. I shall consent to your request, as soon as you give me back my garment," she replied.

"But if I return the garment, you will put it on and fly back to heaven," the old man protested.

"A heavenly being never breaks a promise once made. How is it that you are so suspicious?"

"It is a common trait among us people who live on this earth to suspect each other. I was suspicious of you."

The agreement was made, and the angel was taken to the home of the aged couple. The angel made some wonderful wine for the couple. It was said that a drink of this wine would cure any kind of sickness immediately. Hundreds came from far and near to be healed. And the couple became wealthy.

Some 15 years or so later, the aged couple made a surprising announcement to the angel. They told her that inasmuch as she was not their true daughter, she had better leave their home and go wherever she liked. The angel said,

"I did not come here of my own accord. I came because I was requested to and as your child. It is now difficult for me to leave, as I have promised myself that I will stay here like a bride married into the house. Please let me stay."

These earnest words failed to move the cold hearts of the aged couple, and the angel was finally forced to leave the house. She still had the heavenly garment, with which she could fly, but in her years on this earth she had forgotten how to use the wings. She composed a song amidst tears:

"As one looks up toward heaven,
"It is spacious, boundless, and veiled in mist.
"Oh, where can my home be?"

She then went to a village called Nagu, where she lived for many years. The Nagu Shrine is dedicated to Toyouganome-no-Mikoto, the name given to this angel.

(NOTE) The foregoing three mythical stories are based on an ancient work, the Fudoki, which was a sort of report on the geography, customs, and manners of the people, submitted by the heads of the various provinces to the Court in the sixth year of Wado (A.D. 713) by order of the Emperor Genmyo. The "Angel's Garment" is very frequently discussed by scholars. It is the oldest of the "Swan-Maiden Type" stories; its wording has been well established and fixed. It is not a folk story but assumes the form of a mythical tale.

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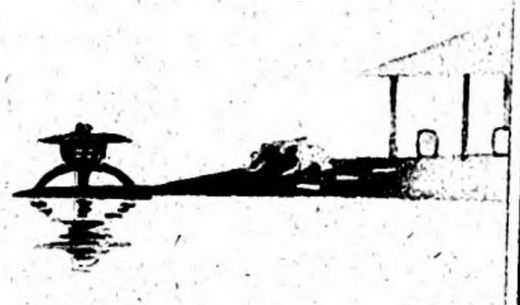

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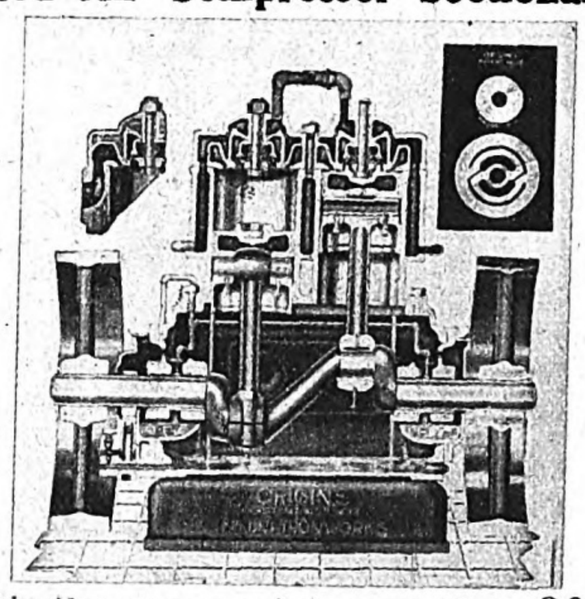

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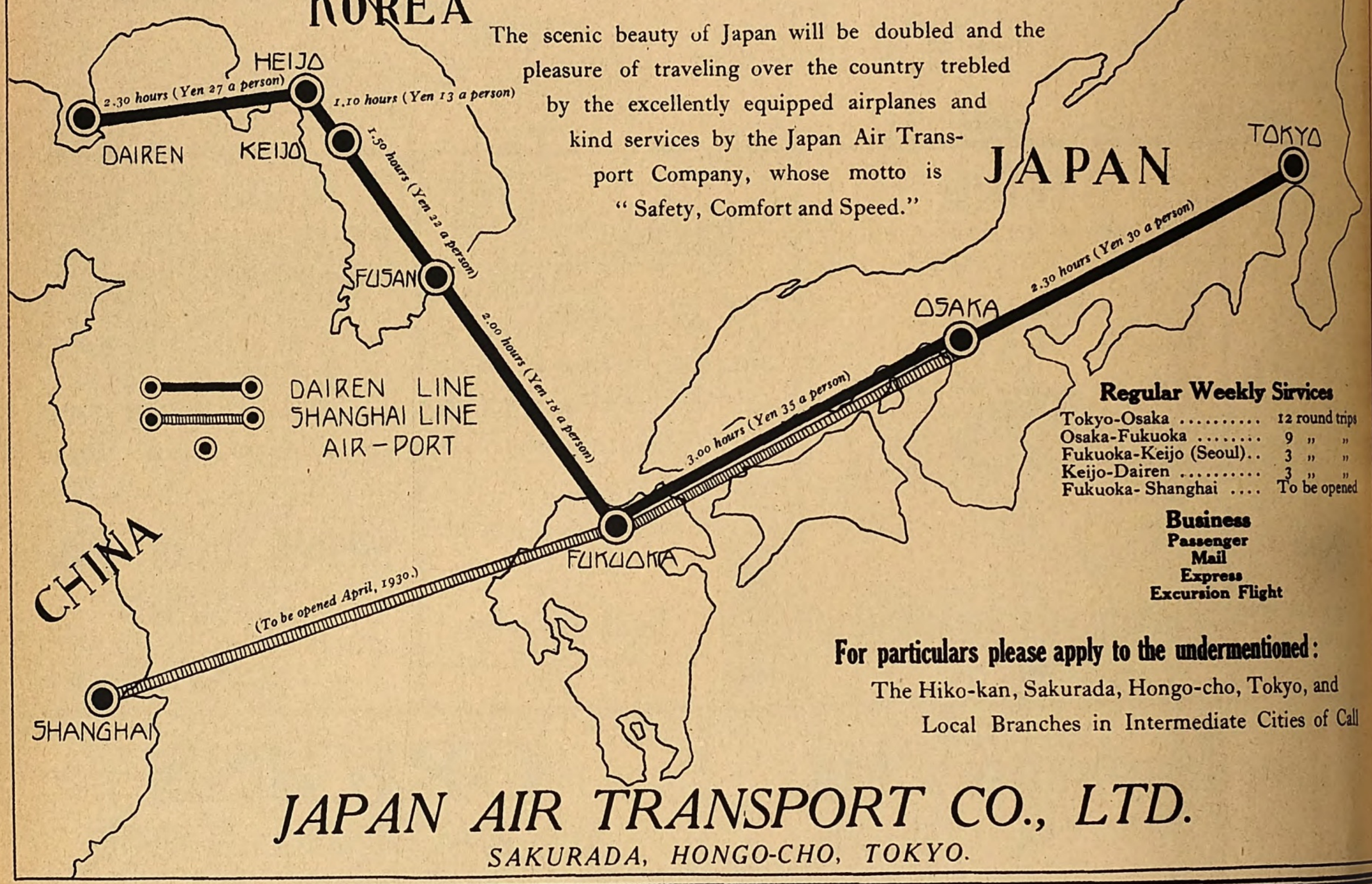

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JAPANESE GOVERNMENT RAILWAYS

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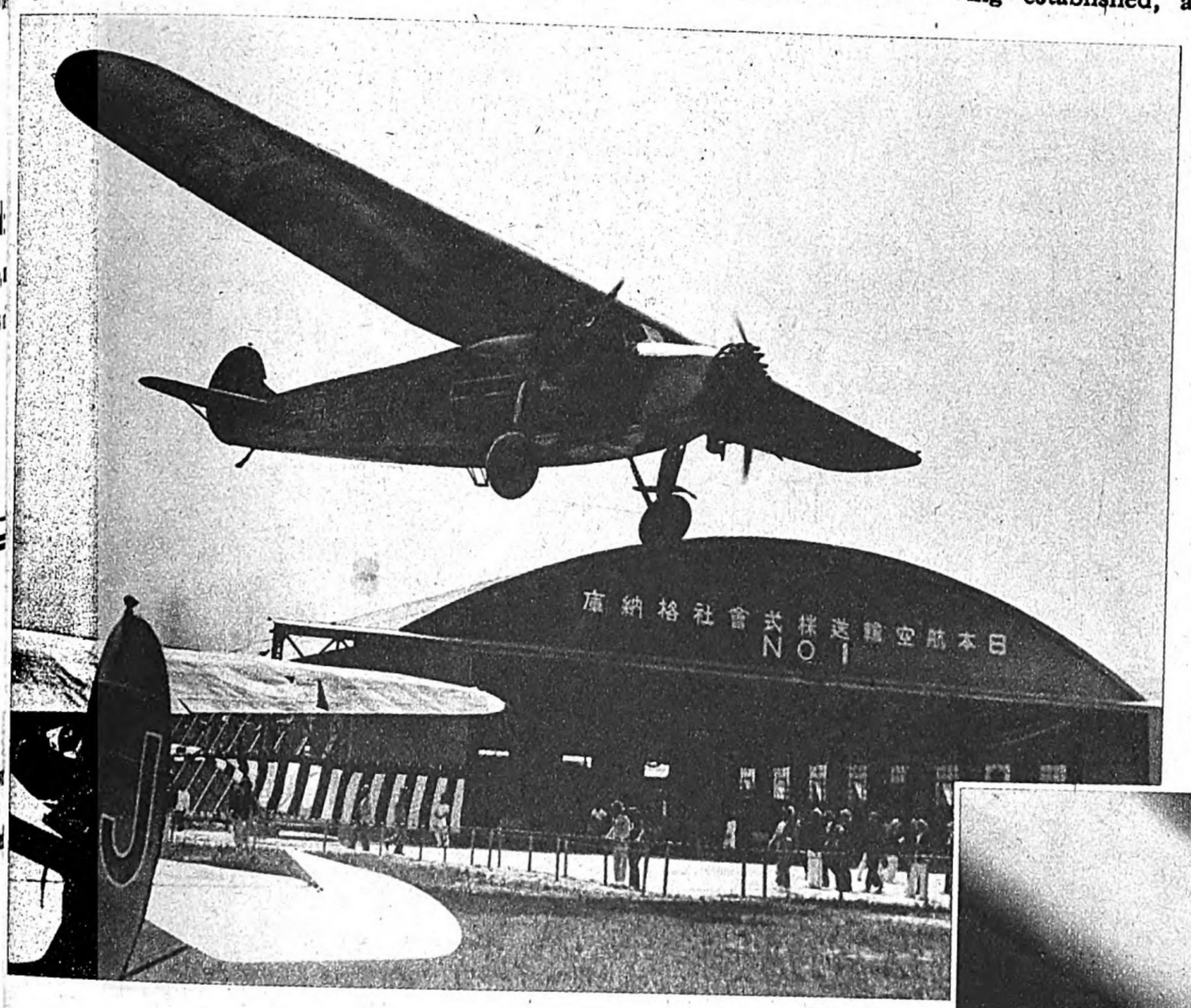
Present Condition of Aviation in Japan

THE spring of the year 1929 was full of bright hope for aeronautical circles in Japan. For, in a strict sense, civil aviation came into existence in Japan for the first time that spring. The starting-point of the history of aviation in Japan, however, must be traced back to the winter of 1910 when lieutenants Tokugawa and Hino succeeded in a trial flight in Tokyo, the first ever made in the country. Since then, for nineteen years, aviation in Japan has made steady progress, though precious blood has frequently been shed by those who sacrificed themselves to advance the art. Meanwhile, the ideal of those concerned with non-military aviation has been the realization of the air transport of passengers and freight. Their long cherished hope was achieved in the spring of this year.

An air line running through Honshu, the main island, however, has been maintained since 1922. The take pride in the fact that the world has never elsewhere seen a newspaper company thus laying the foundation of aeronautical practice during twenty years of constant effort and with a good many sacrifices.

Succeeding the Asahi and taught by its experience, the Japan Air Transport Company came into being on April 1, 1929, with an authorized capital of 10,000,000 yen and a government subsidy of 20,000,000 yen to be paid in the course of ten years. The company opened an air line from Tokyo to Dairen via Osaka, Fukuoka, Urusan, Seoul and Heijo, but for the first three and a half months, the flights were made in Salmson machines with mails only as training for the members of the company. On July 15, both passenger and freight transport was commenced. The machines used are Fokker "Super-universals"



Planes and Hangar of the Japan Air Transport Company

rse has been extended year after r and remarkable progress has been de in the structure of the planes ployed on the line. On the line ween Tokyo and Osaka on which Asahi engaged in mail flights by lf, the air transport of passengers freight was opened in August, 8, by the Asahi as trial undertings. The planes used were Mers and Kommets of the Dornier e and home machines of the Nama, Mitsubishi and Aichi Tokei es. This fact shows the development of the aircraft manufacturing ustry in this country. Six flights week were regularly made according fixed schedules for eight months m the beginning to March, 1929, even in the coldest season when mospheric currents presented the st unfavourable conditions, flights e never suspended. The young ts, with a pioneer feeling, carried their work with much care and terity. By these flights, some seven ndred passengers were swiftly and nfortably transported from the centre political activities to the industrial ter and vice versa, and there were accidents during the period. How ch this undertaking contributed to aeronautical development of the ntry, no one can tell. And we fitted with Jupitor 450 h.p. engines and Fokker Model F 7s fitted with 3 Wright Whirlwind engines (each 230 h.p.). The company has in contemplation the opening of a line from Fukuoka to Shanghai. But daily flights over seas extending 950 kilometers are rather adventurous and there is no like undertaking in the world, so the company is carefully studying the project. Apart from these lines, there is one from Osaka to Takamatsu and Matsuyama in Shikoku, on which flights are made every day by the Japan Air Transport Institute with Junkers' seaplanes.

Thus commercial flight in Japan has made remarkable progress, but owing to the extension of lines to Dairen and Shanghai passenger and freight carriage will increase, and commercial flight has a bright future. But one thing to be regretted is that we have no good air-ports. The Osaka aerodrome was opened in April, 1929, as the first air-port in the Orient. It is the only air-port which lies within the borders of a city. But it takes about 50 minutes to get there by motor-car from the business centre of the city and the canals which lie on the way must be crossed by primitive ferry-boats. In addition, the area of the aerodrome is rather small. It measures only 800 meters from east to west and is shaped like the letter L. On one corner there stands a rice granary belonging to the Department of Agriculture and Forestry, which makes a severe obstacle to the landing and taking off of planes. The Osaka aerodrome is under the control of the Aviation Bureau of the Department of Communications. But the opinion that the aerodrome should be brought under the control of the city of Osaka is now gradually growing. The Osaka aerodrome is the only commercial aerodrome in Japan, both the Tokyo and Fukuoka aerodromes being primarily military. The air-port is an interesting subject of study recently imposed upon aeronautical circles in Japan. Aeronautical meteorological observatories and aeronautical wireless stations are being established, and some of them have been completed. It is expected that within a few years a perfect international air line will be opened in Japan.

In July, 1928, air defence exercises were held for the first time in Osaka on the assumption that Osaka, the industrial centre of Western Japan, was attacked from the air by enemy planes. The scale of the exercises was large. Army planes showed great activity in the exercises. The Osaka Asahi planes and other civil land and sea planes, forming the Patriotic Air Squadron, played an important part by cooperating with the defence army, and the battle in the air was fought for three days. As a part of the exercises, there was light control practice in which all teh lights in the city were put out. These exercises taught valuable lessons for the defence of the city. The air defence exercises proved successful and it has been decided to hold similar exercises in Nagoya in 1929 and in North Kyushu in 1930.

Aerial Defence Squad in Maneuvers at Osaka

In the factories of the army and navy and civil companies, they are making efforts to manufacture planes with new designs. Strong fuselages have been made for several years and planes with these fuselages are flying in the air over Japan every day. On the other hand, engine manufacture is in an earlier stage of progress and engines of purely Japanese design are far from satisfactory. In May 1929, the Japanese Navy made a long ocean flight from Yokosuka to Saipan Island in the South Seas covering some 4,700 kilometers, by two model 15 flying boats manufactured with special designs by the Navy. The pilots, fighting against a heavy rain, succeeded both going and returning. The aviation forces of the Army have long been using Salmson machines, but recently they have replaced them with model 88 biplanes fitted with B M W 600 h.p. engines, purely Japanese made machines. As combat planes, our Army uses Nieuport model M-29 planes fitted with Hispano Suiza 300 h.p. engines.

With Trans-Pacific flying, a problem given to the aviation circles of the whole world, Japan is also deeply concerned. In Japan, a flight was planned last year chiefly by the Imperial Aeronautic Society of Japan. But in the course of the manufacture of the planes to be used for the flight, opinion on the safety factor in the machines was divided among the supervisionary authorities and the engineers concerned with the manufacture, and the making of machines to the specifications proposed by the engineers was at last abandoned. Thus the flight, which had been the cherished hope of the Society since 1927, had to be given up. The society, however, was not discouraged by this deadlock and never gave up the desire. Changing its staff, it came out with a new plan, declaring that it would spare no effort to succeed. But importance must be attached to machines rather than personnel. If we could make planes which could stand up against fifty or sixty hour flights, it might not be difficult to cross the Pacific, but as we generally admit, it is beyond our ability to make such machines in Japan, as it is in other countries. After all, the Trans-Pacific flight remains an interesting problem to be solved by those interested in the aviation of the world.

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The Foods and Drinks of Japan

A Japanese Cook's Opinion of His Own Dishes

By a Famous Tokyo Chef

IF the saying that the food of Japan should be tasted with the eyes has some truth in it, it can not be denied that between the food of Japan and that of European countries which is tasted with the nose, or the food whose merit is all in its flavour, there is a marked difference not only in the way of cooking and eating but also in the likes of the people. For this reason, while the words which signify an apparent relish for food such as "tempting" or "inviting" may be called the result of judgment by the eyes in Japan, they may be called the result of judgment by the nose in European countries. In the words "to taste with the eyes," we Japanese find a double or triple meaning. In a dish of food carefully cooked we can at least find art and poetry.

Being born and brought up in a country which nature blesses with beautiful landscapes, the Japanese have a peculiar familiarity with nature and a romantic character which is often reflected in the cooking of their food. It is of course impossible to reproduce the divers features of nature, such as mountains, rivers and forests in a dish, but it is not difficult to represent in some way or other the impression we receive from nature. Thus we can taste food in two ways. When the Imperial Household announces the subject, which always has some connection with nature, for the poems to be presented by the people at large for the contest in the New Year Poetry Party at the Court, it is applied to the cooking of food for the New Year's days in many well-to-do households. In addition, the extent to which the names of food are derived from nature and made poetic is beyond the imagination of most Europeans. For instance, when we broil a sweet-fish with salt, we skewer it and then broil it so as to put a curve in the body of the fish —the pose which the fish takes in the water. The sweet-fish thus cooked is called "nobori-ayu", which means a sweet-fish running up the stream.

The apparent beauty and the beauty by association of the food of Japan is the same as the flavour of the food in European countries, in that they aim at the improvement of appetite. But it may be said that the food of Japan has gone too far in this point. But considering the conditions of our life, we cannot dare to abandon this factor.

The food of Japan is rather light compared with that of European countries in accordance with the taste of the people. This is partly due to the fact that the staple food of the Japanese, rice and barley, is chiefly carbohydrate, and in order to harmonize with this, side dishes must be plain too. This harmonization of taste is studied to a considerable extent.

As it is quite natural that the people of the Continent, where the climate is rather cold, and where cattle are abundant, are accustomed to an animal diet, so it is natural that the Japanese who live in an island country, where the climate is mild and the seas around abound in fish and shell fish, should prefer rather light food prepared from these materials. For example, in Japan, even the main course of a formal dinner is, as a rule, very plain, and the soup which is served last with the purpose of "washing the chop-sticks" is required to be the plainest. This is especially so when saké is served. And in this case, salt is used as the main seasoner, with a bit of mirin instead of soy, a condiment peculiar to Japan. The mirin is a kind of liquor and is somewhat like liqueur, tasting rather sweet. What the succinic acid contained in a drop of mirin contributes to the flavour of soup is more than a spoonful of whisky contributes to that of black tea. Food cooked with such profound care and having a refreshing flavour is what appeals to the taste of the Japanese people. Let us give another example. Cut a piece of dried bonito into such thin slices that they can be rolled, then put them into a frying pan and roast them over a strong fire a little while. Then take a piece of laver, cut it into twelve pieces and smear them with pickled plums (plums pickled with salt in a way peculiar to Japan). Put them into a lacquered wooden soup bowl with the roasted slices of bonito, pour boiling water into the bowl, and you have a tasteful soup. The flavour of the laver, the zest of the pickled plums, and the relish of the roasted slices of dried bonito produce an indescribable taste and flavour too complicated to be called plain. The harmony of flavour produced by these simplest of materials rationally joined is astonishing and may be called unique in the cookery of the world. If there is any one who thinks the food of Japan irrational, it is because he only sees that the materials of which it is made are not treated scientifically.

Now let us explain how far the flavour of food is studied and what remarkable progress the Japanese people have made in this subject. Of course that variety should be given to foods in consonance with the seasons is known and given attention to not only in Japan but in all other countries. In Japan, however, this particular phase of cookery has been studied for centuries and shows noteworthy progress. Let us give an example by taking here again a sweet-fish. The prohibition on the catching of this fish is removed on July 1 or when the hot season sets in. The sweet-fish of this season improves, by its fresh colour and delicious flavour, our appetites which suffer with the coming of hot weather. In Japan, the sweet-fish has another name, "kogyo", which means "good flavoured fish". The plain flavour of this fish is greatly appreciated by the Japanese, and the fish is cooked so as to make the most of it. And this is why we ordinarily broil the sweet-fish with salt and season it with tade-su (tade means "knot-grass" and su, "vinegar"). The piquancy of the knot-grass, when prepared with a few spoonfuls of vinegar and mirin, produces a delicious taste. The sweet-fish, the flesh of which is white, served with green tade-su, gives a shade of coolness to the table of early summer which would be delightful even if it were only to look at. To keep the colouring matter of the knot-grass in tade-su from coagulating, some kind of viscous material is used. This material has, at the same time, the function of keeping the vinegar and mirin from separating. We are surprised at the thorough-going attention paid to the art of cooking Japanese food. The tade-su is really a kind of sauce, but a little superior to the pickle sauce used in European food. It is true that the harmony between the taste of food and that of the sauce is well studied in every country but it has nowhere achieved such great success as in the cooking of the sweet-fish in Japan. Moreover, the Japanese attach equal importance to the conditions under which they partake of food as to the taste of the food itself. For instance, in early summer, when the splendour of the growth of verdure is at its height, the Japanese go to well ventilated rooms, and putting on Japanese kimono convenient for the movement of the limbs, sit at table as long as possible.

Me ni aoba yamahototogisu
hatsugatsuo.

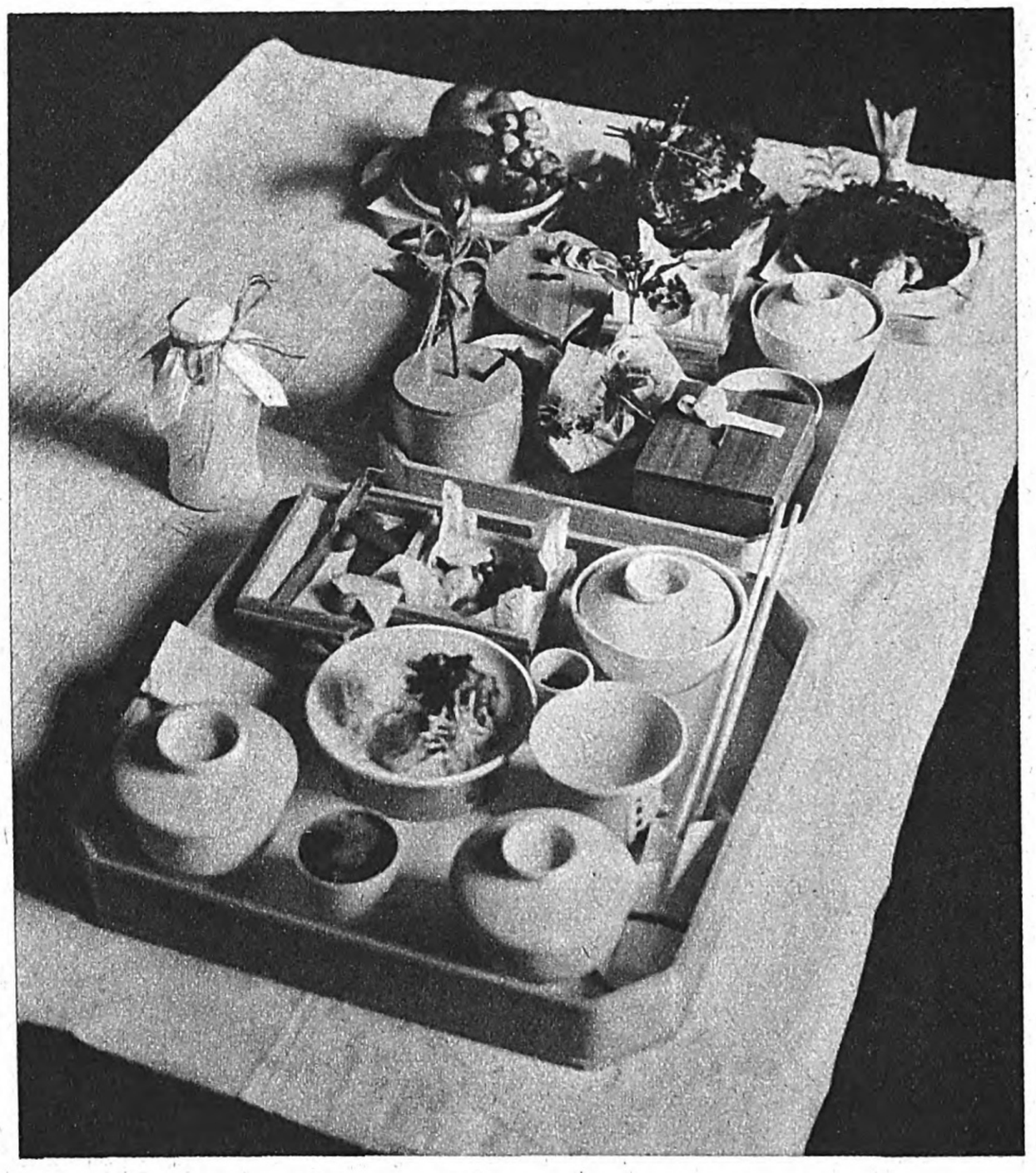
(Green leaves for the eyes, the cry of the cuckoo for the ears and the first-caught bonito for the tongue; all joys of early summer.)

Winter evenings, when the cold freezes us to the bone, nothing is preferable to sukiyaki. When we think of sukiyaki, we feel the warmness run through our bodies. Sukiyaki is known to the foreigners who live in Japan and is highly appreciated by them. It may be called an ideal food as it maintains the temperature of the body and supplies us with fat and inorganic matter which our bodies need. From this point of view, sukiyaki can be called a complete food. The cooking of sukiyaki is very simple and loses no nutritious matter. The origin of the name sukiyaki is found in the story of a daimyo who went out hunting with his retainers. They killed much game but were fatigued and famished by their activities. Unfortunately, however, they had nothing to eat but boiled rice. One of the retainers went to a field and borrowed from a farmer a plough with which he was working. He used it in the place of a pan and cooked the game they had killed with it and served it to his master. The daimyo was much pleased with this entertainment, and after he returned home, he ordered to be made a thick iron pan to cook meat in. This is said to have been the beginning of sukiyaki. The chief ingredient for sukiyaki is not limited to beef; it is since the introduction of European food and the spread of beef eating that sukiyaki has been ordinarily connected with beef. It is not strange, therefore, that sukiyaki should have become familiar to Occidental people, who ordinarily eat meat.

The same dish made of chicken is called yosenabe. It is the same as sukiyaki in that it is suitable for a family gathering or group of friends in winter time. In sukiyaki and yosenabe, alike, four or five persons, as a rule, sit at a table, and eat from a pan as the Chinese usually do. It is contributable to the promotion of a warm feeling among them. But for yosenabe, an earthen pan rather than an iron pan is preferable and, as the name yosenabe (yose means to gather; nabe, pan) signifies, the materials used for yosenabe are of divers kinds. But as for the staple material, either chicken or wild duck will do, and together with this, stone-leek, mitsuba (a kind of fragrant vegetable), kamaboko (pounded and steamed flesh of fish), shrimps, the flesh of sea-bream, hiragai (a kind of shell), clams, waterarcher and so forth are boiled in bonito soup flavoured with soy and mirin and are eaten while they are boiling. From the point of view of nutrition, yosenabe is perfect.

Another food recommendable for the winter time is mizudaki of chicken and fish. Mizudaki means boiling with water. In this case, the boiling is done in a special way and the chicken and fish boiled is eaten with a kind of sauce flavoured with soy and lemon juice or the juice of a bitter orange and some grated raddish in it. Mizudaki tastes rather plain but has an agreeable zest too delicate to be explained.

Here something should be said about tempura, or fried food. While the fried fish in European countries is fried with animal fat, in the case of tempura sesame oil, which is found only in the Orient, is used. For tempura, light and plain fish is preferred and the



Food Served to the Guests of Honour at the Feast Called *Naorai* Given by the Home Minister at the Close of the Shrine Removal Ceremonies at Ise

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ish fried is eaten with a kind of sauce, which is usually made of bonito soup easoned with soy and mirin, the proportions being seven to three ordinarily. And in order to give flavour o the sauce and at the same time to elp the digestion, some grated raddish s put into it as in the case of mizudaki nd other foods. Tempura is one f the staple dishes of the Japanese nd is suitable for the table in the old season.

The foods so far mentioned are epresentative of the dishes served ccording to the season. Now we vill turn to kuchitori. Kuchitori is dish almost always served at banuets. It is a mixture of various inds of food elaborately cooked and rranged in a dish not bigger than

Foreign Visitors at a Sukiyaki Party in Osaka

ght or nine inches in diameter. uchitori is beautiful to look at and stes delicious and is liked by every e whether a woman who is always nd of sweet things or an old rson who prefers tender foods a man who adheres to saké. In ort, kuchitori is so concocted as satisfy every one present. In the tter of assortment, a lunch in ropean countries is well thought out, t it is far inferior to kuchitori in is respect.

Another food peculiar to Japan is u or bean-curd. Foreigners who ve lived in Japan for a long time d are accustomed to Japanese food preciate bean-curd. And we hear t the process of the manufacture of an-curd is studied in some of their untries. Bean-curd tastes plain but is rich in nutrition. Ordinarily prepare tofu either by boiling or ply by cooling it with cold water ice. In the former case it is suitable the cold season, while in the latter, is good as a summer food. Bees, tofu can be taken either with soning of soy, mirin and sugar or h other seasonings or simply with ne-leek, grated raddish or other uant material such as ginger.

Up to one thousand three hundred rs ago, our ancestors must have ed on wild grains such as millet barn-yard grass and wild fruits, those who lived near the seashore st have eaten fish and shell fish cooking them in some way or other. t from the Higashiyama Period 44-1473) to the Momoyama Period 94-1598), Gogyo and Sancho,—t is, five fish and three birds, nely, the sea-bream, the sea-perch, flat fish, carp and bonito and the ne, pheasant, and wild goose, were st commonly cooked and eaten. e cookery practiced during this iod by our ancestors made an ch in the history of the cookery Japan. And since this period, d has come to be an indispensable or in social intercourse, and later the Genroku Period (1688-1704, middle of the Tokugawa regime),

when the general public indulged in luxury and superfluity and the tea ceremony and the art of flower arrangement came into vogue, cookery made great progress, culminating in the making of a golden age in the history of cookery. The introduction of Chinese culture during the Tempo Period (1830-1844), however, and that of European countries later, brought about a considerable change in the cooking of Japanese food and in the earlier part of the Meiji Period, the people began to acquire a liking for European food. Under these circumstances, an eclectic diet was made out of European and Japanese food. And now the time has come when the food of all the countries of the world can be had in Japan.

A Tempura Kitchen Where Fish and Vegetables are Fried in Grease

Now that we have made a short survey of the changes in food in accordance with period, it is timely to add here the dishes which have long been familiar to the nation. They are Yusoku dishes, Kaiseki dishes, Shojin dishes, Sozai dishes and Kyodo dishes. Yusoku dishes are those which have always been served solely on ceremonial occasions. They are made upon a traditional and invariable principle, the lack of which makes them mere imitations. In the case of Yusoku food, scores of different dishes are served at a dinner. The explanation of each of them would require more space than we can afford here.

Kaiseki dishes—kaiseki means a dinner party—are, as the name indicates, the table d'hote of Japan. Dishes for each person are arranged upon a zen, or a small individual dinner table, before which one is seated. Kaiseki dishes are, in a way, like the picnic dishes of foreign countries. Shojin dishes are served only in such places as the Buddhist temples of the Zen sect and consist only of vegetables. For Shojin dishes the plainness of the taste is regarded essential and to produce delicacy out of plainness is the problem of the cook who makes Shojin dishes. Sozai dishes are the dishes for the meals of our daily life, eaten as side dishes with our staple food, rice. Kyodo means native place, hence the Kyodo dishes are the dishes of various districts. Kyodo dishes are ordinarily cooked in the peculiar ways common to different districts, and are, so to speak, the pride of each district. As Japan enjoys variety in her climate, her natural products differ accordingly, so that it is no wonder that the foods of different districts made of different materials, should differ from each other. These local foods have made a characteristic progress during hundreds of years without losing their peculiarity.

Of course, as we have already said, it is because of the abundance of natural resources in Japan that her art of cookery has made such great progress, but it is also partly due to the endeavour of the people to add, by the application of modern science, to the stock of foods new materials and to create new foods. During the past thirty years many kinds of vegetables and fruits have been added to the Japanese diet.

Now let us turn to drinks. Japanese saké is so palatable that it is called the "bounty of heaven" by its admirers. A few glasses of saké drunk with a few light dishes makes us forget every earthly affair and conveys us to another world where we find nothing but satisfaction and comfort. The best of Japanese saké is produced at Nada, a district in Hyogo Prefecture. Although always brewed from rice, the quality of saké is not always the same, but is greatly affected primarily by the water with which it is brewed and secondly, by the climate of the vicinity and the dexterity of the brewers. Besides saké, Japan has shochu and awamori, both strong drinks which may be compared with whisky and brandy, and mirin, which is akin to liqueur. Saké is not only served on the table daily, but it is drunk on occasions of mourning for the departed, not to speak of rejoicing. Among the coronation ceremonies of a Japanese Emperor, there is one in which he waits upon the souls of his ancestors and the Gods of Heaven and Earth with Shiroki (white saké) and Kuroki (black saké). On new year's day, the members of every family in the country sit together and drink a glass each of toso (spiced saké) in rejoicing over the new year and in the expectation of good fortune during the year. In the earlier history of China, we read that the Emperor Yu turned against Yi-ti, one of his able subjects, because he brewed a kind of liquor which the Emperor thought harmful to the health and morals of the people. But liquor has never been disliked by any nation since it first appeared on the earth. In Japan great quantities of foreign liquor have come to be imported recently and the consumption is showing an accelerated increase. Accordingly, prohibitionists,—they are found in Japan, too—will have to devote themselves more and more vigorously to their cause if they really want to put their opinion into effect. To their discouragement, however, the Tokyo Chemical Institute has recently succeeded, after long and hard experiment, in making a kind of chemical saké out of some material other than rice, whereas ordinary saké is invariably brewed from rice. This saké is sold in the market under the name of Riken-shu (Riken means the Chemical Institute and shu, saké). Consequently, when rice runs short on account of a poor harvest or for some other reason and it is hard to get for the brewing of saké, we shall not be without saké, thanks to the new method of sake brewing recently perfected. For those, however, who have no taste for saké, it is nothing but a seasoning

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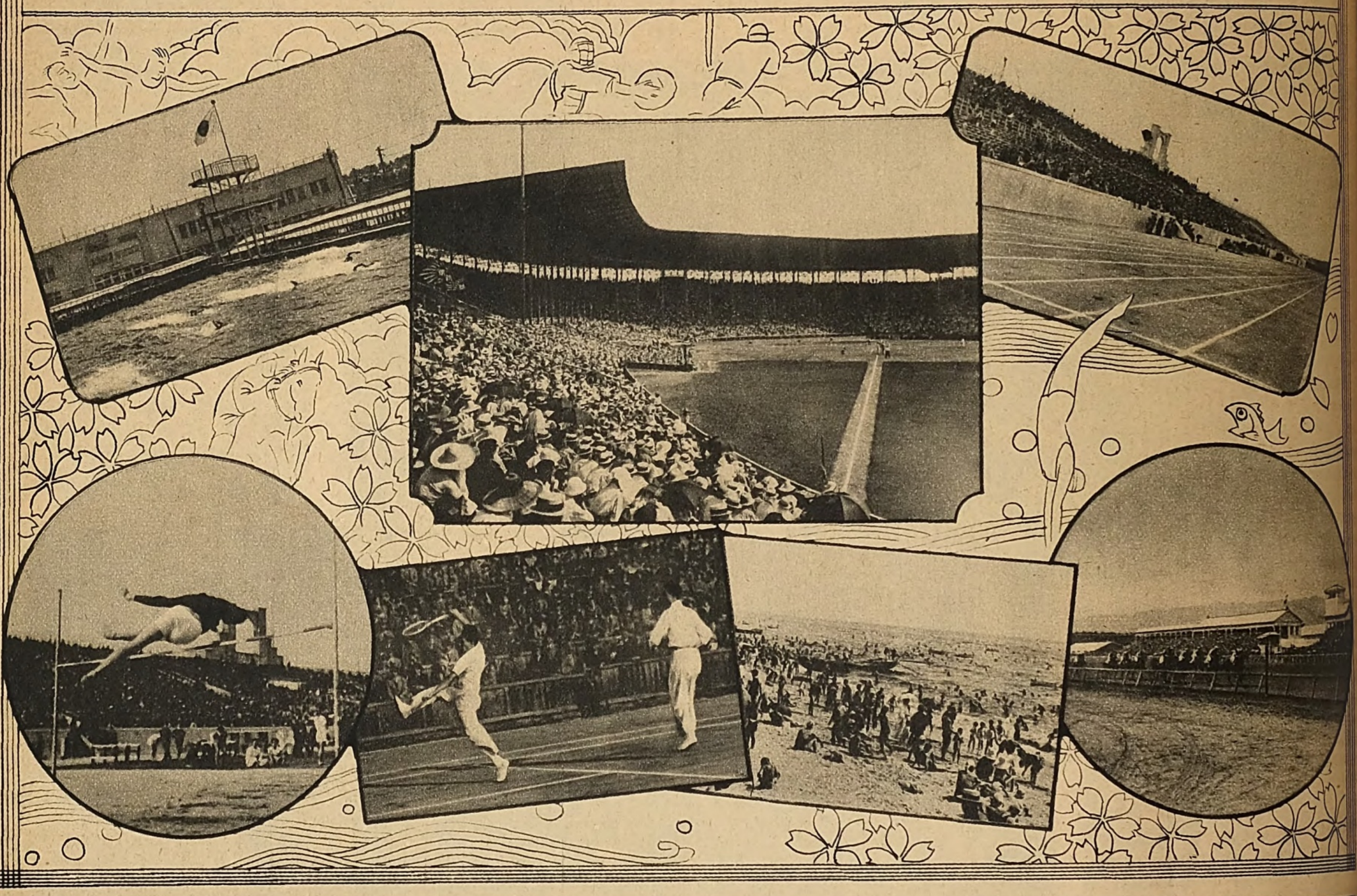
In a vast area of land near the seashore just half way between Osaka and Kobe is situated the Koshien Stadium, furnished with a baseball diamond, a football ground, an athletic field, tennis courts and facilities for other sports, with a club house and a beach house attached.

As evidenced by their achievements in Amsterdam last year, Japanese athletes now can claim a place among the first-rate countries of the sports world. Their present position has been achieved in a very short course of time. In this respect Japan has surpassed Finland and Germany, both of which were previously recognized as new and promising countries in world sports.

Consequently the Japanese people have recently been taking an increased interest in sports, and in view of this, the Hanshin Electric Co. built its great stadium at Koshien. This is one of the greatest contributions ever made by a private organization to Japan's sports. Its importance is shown by the fact that **the outstanding baseball and football games, tennis tournaments and track and field meets** are held there.



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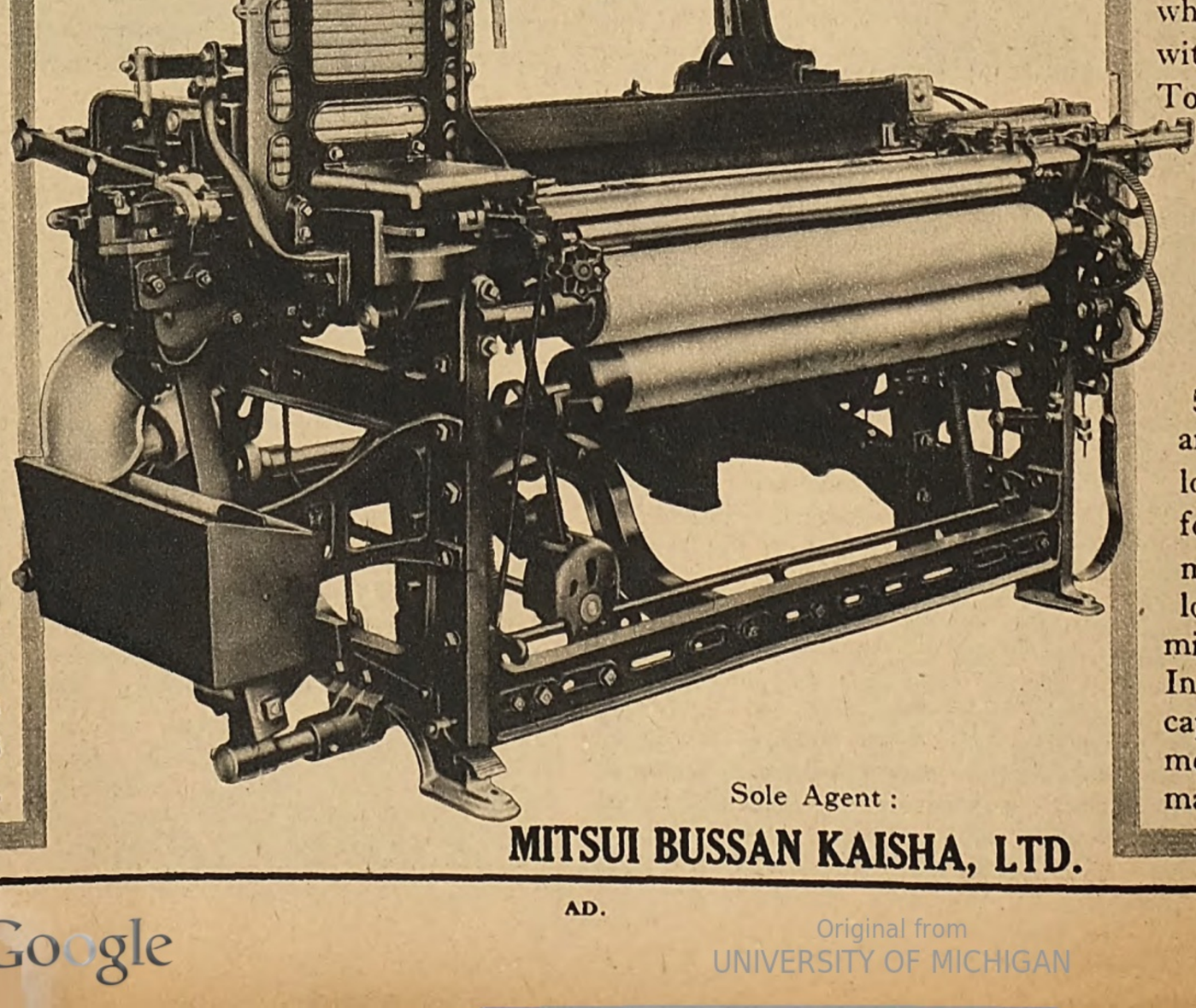

And it is also remarkable that it has a capacity of 200 picks per minute, whereas 160 picks is usual with other looms. The Toyoda Loom is free from the difficulty found in other looms of supplying the weft while the loom is running at high speed. The company has 500 personsin its employ and a capacity of 500 looms a month. Since its foundation in 1926 it has manufactured 12,000 looms for the spinning mills of Japan, China and India, and its present capacity is not sufficient to meet the ever growing mand.

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Music in Japan

Old Instruments and New, and the Setting of Ancient Oriental Tunes to Western Music

I. JAPAN LACKS HER OWN MUSIC

WE talk of Japanese music, but in the strict sense of the word apan has no music of her own, that is o say, there is no music which was nvented and developed in Japan. Of he instruments used in Japanese usic, the Koto, Samisen, and Shakuachi are regarded as representative. hese musical instruments were, howver, not invented by the Japanese. hey were imported from China, orea, or the Loochoo Islands. In is respect Japanese music is in the me category with her civilization, hich was originally brought from ndia and China, and finally om the West. Japanese usic is nothing but Indian, hinese, and Western music. ut just as the imported vilization of Japan has en assimilated into Japase life and sentiment, d has emerged as someing quite different, so the usic of Japan has undergone such changes that it n properly be called panese music. The musical instruments, which re first imported from road, have been evolving ring a long course of ne, so that they quite fit nation's sentiment and aracter. As regards the mpositions, the greater rtion was created by the panese. The Gagaku ich was imported in the ly part of the Nara and Heian peds is an Oriental orchestra according Western musical appellations, but Gagaku has undergone great nges and improvements since it was ported, and moreover, the music has g since disappeared in the couns from which it originally came. en although it was imported, the sic can be justly called pure Japse music, since Japan alone can m its possession now.

Western music is at a standstill, it is keenly felt that something st be done toward a new departure.

Broadcasting a Koto, Samisen and Shakuhachi Trio

this purpose various new experits are being made. In this conion it is argued in some quarters the only way to impart new life to tern music is from Oriental music. of Oriental music, Japanese ic is the only representative sort, Indian music has already disared, while Chinese and Korean ic have declined, only degenerate as surviving. Just as Japanese lization carries the essence of the Oriental civilization of two thousand years, so the music of Japan, although old in form, is ever new in spirit, thanks to the inventive genius of the Japanese nation. If, therefore, a new way is to be opened for Western music in the future, it is thought that the basis must be sought in the study of Japanese music. It is on this account that the number of Western musicians who pay attention to Japanese music is gradually increasing.

II. HISTORY OF THE PRINCIPAL MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS

KOTO—The Koto or So, with thirteen strings, which is being used in Japan at present, was created in the period of Tsin in China. It was first imported into Japan together with the Biwa during the Nara period. During the Heian period the Koto was used with the Biwa in the orchestra of Gagaku. It was also used for recitals.

At present it is chiefly used for the latter purpose. Among professional musicians there are many male experts, but generally it is played by girls and ladies of the middle and upper classes. Koto music is divided into many schools, such as the Tsukushi, Yatsuhashi, Ikuta, Yamada, etc., of which the Ikuta and Yamada are most popular at present. Recently a new attempt is being made to impart into the Koto the rhythm of Western musical instruments.

SAMISEN—The Samisen, also called the Sangen, is most popular and is often regarded as the national instrument of Japan. But even the Samisen was originally introduced from abroad, and its history is new as compared with the other instruments. It was imported into Japan in 1392. It was first introduced into the Loochoo Islands by the ancestral Emperor of the Ming Dynasty in order to transform into Chinese ways the customs of the Islands. For this purpose the Emperor sent agents from Fuchow province, who established the musical institutions of the Islands. These Fuchow people brought with them the Samisen, which was ultimately introduced into Japan proper.

But even the Chinese who introduced the Samisen into the Loochoo Islands did not invent it originally, but imported it from the Western land, by which was probably meant Egypt, for an instrument existed in Egypt three or four thousand years ago which might be regarded as the oldest Samisen. It was towards the end of the Ashikaga period that the Samisen was imported into Japan proper. During the era of Eiroku, it was first used at Sakai, near Osaka. At that time snake's skin was used in the Samisen. It is said that a player of the Samisen called Ishimura Kengyo substituted cat's skin for the snake's skin. As regards the songs sung to the accompaniment of the Samisen, there were Gidayu in Osaka, Icchu in Kyoto and Kato in Yedo (now Tokyo), which were all born out of Joruri, to the recital of which puppet shows were enacted.

Now the Icchu of Kyoto gave birth to Bungo-bushi, Tokiwadzu, Shinnai, Tomimoto and Kiyomoto, in Yedo. Of all these schools, only Gidayu, Nagauta, Tokiwadzu and Kiyomoto now exist. This reduction of the number of schools is attributed to the fact that in olden times people had leisure enough to distinguish and appreciate the delicate differences of tunes in these schools, which are all sung to one kind of instrument, that of the Samisen. But now the kinds of musical instruments have been increased and people have to discriminate between the various kinds of rythms produced by many instruments, which have been introduced by the nations of the world, and they have to discern many compositions of the music of the various nations. And naturally we have no time to study the slight differences of the schools which merely exist in one kind of musical instrument.

SHAKUHACHI—The Shakuhachi is a flute made of bamboo. We play on it vertically. The oldest flute of this kind was found in Egypt five or six thousand years ago. It is believed that one which was brought to the West has evolved into the Oboe, and one which was brought to the East has become the Shakuhachi in Japan. At first it was made of the stalk of a rush but later bamboo was used. The flute was widely used perhaps on account of the fact that it was easily played, very convenient to carry, with a clear and transparent sound, and moreover the tone is very smooth, like that of the human voice. The flute was introduced from India into China with Buddhism and then into Japan. Then it will be seen that the Shakuhachi followed the same course as Buddhism in coming to Japan.

Shakuhachi music has also many schools. During the Tokugawa Dynasty a certain Kurozawa Kohachi started a school called Kinko-Ryu. He perfected thirty-six tunes. Towards the end of the Tokugawa Dynasty began the so called foreign tunes and the Shakuhachi was played in concert with the Samisen and Koto. Musical geniuses such as Yoshida Iccho and Araki Kodo tried their best to bring this trio to perfection, and now the Shakuhachi has become an almost indispensable instrument in Japanese concerts. This trio is called *sankyoku-gasso*, and is probably the best of Japanese music.

Just before the Restoration there was in Nagasaki a master of Shakuhachi called Kondo Soetsu. He taught the Shakuhachi at Kyoto and Osaka. Under him a number of experts were produced, Nakao Tozan who started the Tozan-Ryu being among them. The Tozan-Ryu is a strong rival of the Kinko-Ryu of the Eastern districts.

Nagauta Singers and Accompanists in a Recital

Nagai Ikuko, Singing a Japanese Song Set to Western Music, to the Accompaniment of a Samisen, by Kineya Sakichi

III. THE PRESENT-DAY MUSIC OF JAPAN

The above is an outline of Japanese music and instruments which have been handed down to the present day. What is called music in Japan at present consists of the above mentioned music, and newly imported Western music. If the Japanese nation be divided into two categories, those possessing old ideas and those possessing new ideas, or the older and younger generations, the former may be said to care for the old Japanese music and the latter for Western music. Thus the musical taste of the Japanese nation is divided.

It is thought that even Western music will be Japanised just as the Chinese, Korean and Loochuan music were in olden times, and the day will come when the piano, violin and mandolin will undergo the same fate with the Samisen, Koto and Shakuhachi. In this way the musical instruments of the two different categories will be harmonised by the Japanese with the result that a new music of the new age will be created. This tendency is already visible. The ballads for children and folk songs which are much in vogue at present are Japanese tunes set to Western music. These songs are sung to the accompaniment of the piano or violin. Pure Western music is also in fashion, but it is not so popular as old Japanese music. To the general public, however, the folk songs and juvenile ballads are more appealing.

Japanese music is in transition, but is the old music of Japan declining and Western music being substituted for it? Nay, they are being harmonised, and a new music will be born.

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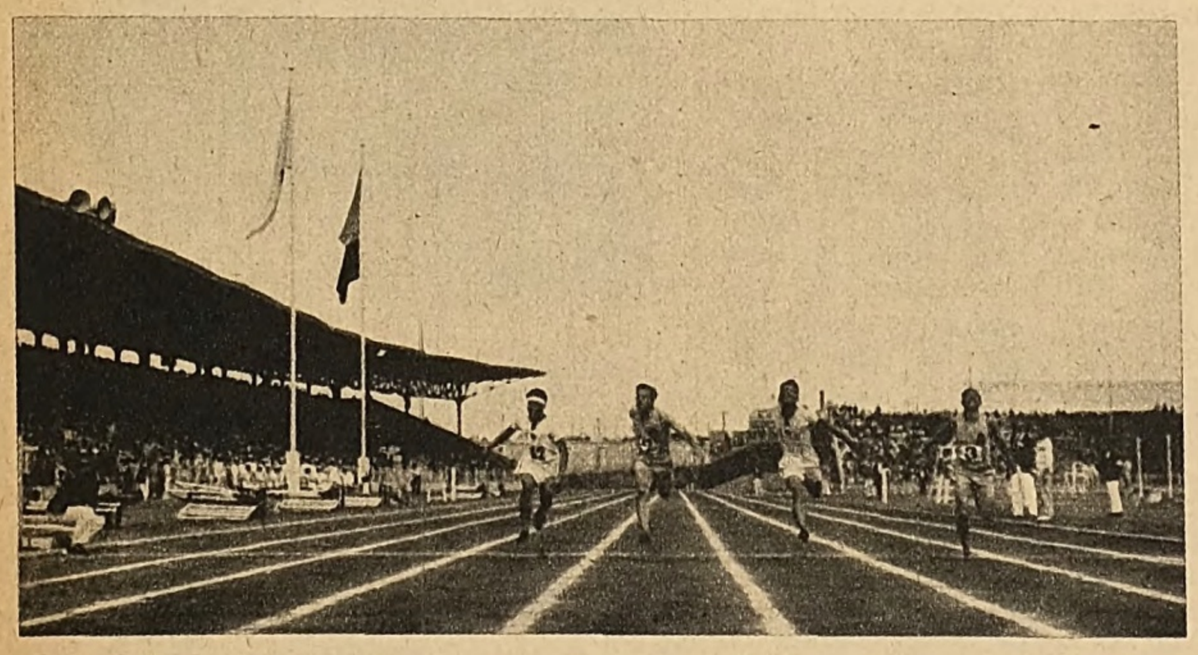
Athletic Japan

A Remarkable Record of the Mastery of Western Sports

JAPAN AND THE OLYMPIC GAMES

IT was to the 5th World's Olympic Games in Stockholm in 1912 that Japan for the first time sent a delegation to participate in these international contests. This first delegation included only five or six members, two of whom were contestants and the rest committee men. The two athletes were Mishima, a sprinter then on the Tokyo Imperial University track team, and Kanakuri, one of Japan's first Marathon racers. From the conviction and feeling of pride that they first represented Japan before the eyes of the world, they were particularly anxious to enhance Japan's prestige in this line of human activities. But all they could do there was for Mishima to take second in the 400 meter trial and to fail in the preliminary heat of the 100; and for Kanakuri to stop overheated in the Marathon on the way to the finish. What Mishima gained in the 400 trial was, however, owing to the fact that all but one of the other runners in that heat dropped out. Such was the memorable score first earned by Japanese in the Olympics. This was most disappointing for the delegates themselves and far more so for the enthusiastic people at home who gave support to this first challenge by Japanese athletes to the world.

The Three Expert Norwegian Skiers who Came to Japan in the Winter of 1928-29



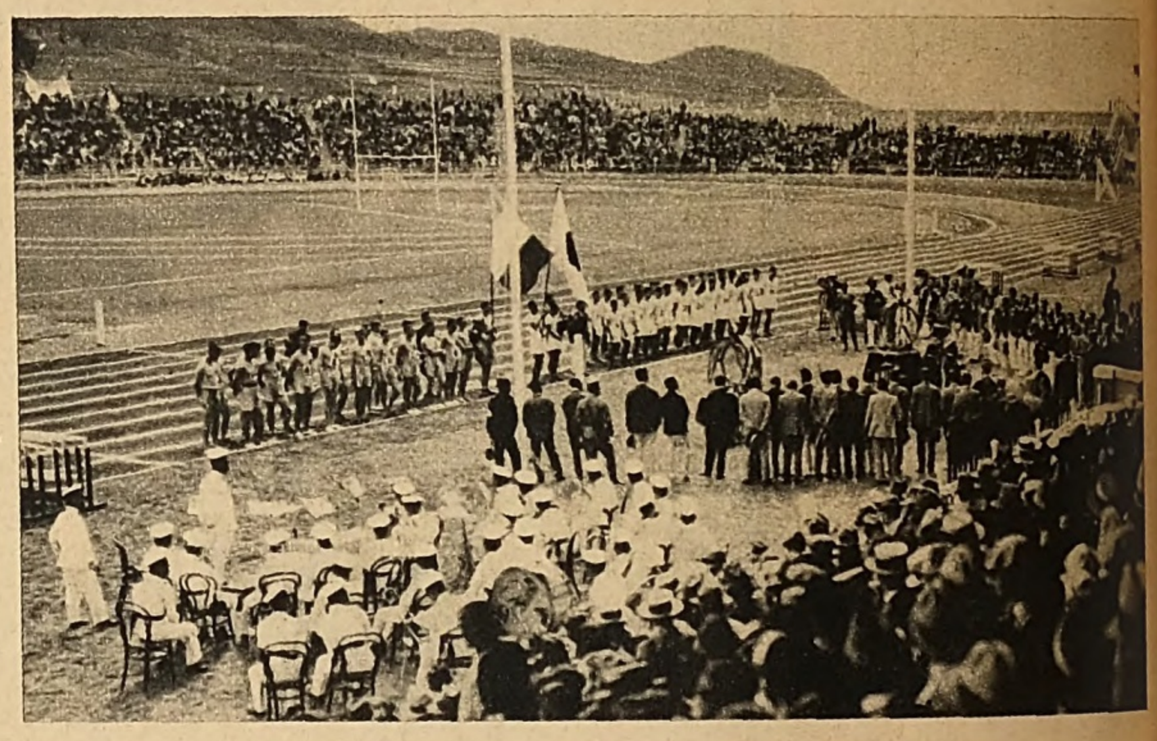
Finish of the Hundred Meter Dash at the Franco-Japanese Meet, Dairen

However, the bitter experience at Stockholm had its consequences. Upon ascertaining themselves where they stood in the world's arena of sports, as an outcome of that experience, the Japanese sportsmen succeeded in making it the occasion for stimulating themselves around an ambition to near the world's highest merits in sports.

The 6th World's Olympic Games were put off on account of the great war, and the 7th Games took place in Antwerp in 1920, after a lapse of eight years from the preceding games in Stockholm. In that year Japan organized a delegation of thirteen members, comprising nine for track and field events, two for swimming, and two for tennis. Of the nine track and field men, five were Marathon runners. This was because Japan had it particularly in mind to show her best in the Marathon race, making good the failure she had met with at Stockholm. The remaining four were one sprinter, one middle distance runner, and two Decathlon men; but these four, with the two swimmers, were not so much interested in participation in contests as in viewing them for study. It was clear that the Japanese people expected a great deal more of the present delegation than they had of the last. In the Marathon race, on which so much emphasis was put, it was generally believed that there would be a few prize winners among the five men sent. But the outcome was far from satisfactory. Unhappily it was most disappointing in the Marathon, in which the Japanese runners turned out the victims of change of climate and living and left poorer records than had Kanakuri at Stockholm. In swimming, the Japanese did nothing but get surprized at the mastery of the crawl stroke by European and American mermen. It was thanks entirely, therefore, to the two tennis players, Kumagai and Kashio, who were runners-up, that the Japanese delegates did not totally discredit themselves. The bitterness of the experience they had this time was, it will be seen, greater in degree than before; on account of which, however, it was all the more earnestly determined by the Japanese that they should bring themselves up to an international level.

In these repeated failures it is conspicuous that Japan was always found in an endeavour to reenforce her sporting activity after every defeat and reach the end determined upon at the beginning of her participation in the Olympics. There is no denying that such endeavour promised her a final triumph over her difficulties, which were inevitable in view of the backwardness that made her first join in the Olympic Games fifteen or tweny years later than European countries.

In 1924, four years later than the games in Antwerp, the 8th Games were held in Paris. To these went from Japan a delegation of thirty-one men, comparatively satisfactory in membership, constituted as it was of a few skilled coaches, a physician and the management, in addition to the eight track and field athletes, six swimmers, four tennis players and one wrestler. Though the team was much stronger than the two preceding teams, it still made a pitiful comparison with other teams. It was the aim, therefore, of its individual members, not to win points, but to decide for themselves if there were possibilities for them to rank in the future side by side with European and American champions. Such was also the concern in the hearts of the Japanese people at large.



Opening Ceremony at the Franco-Japanese Track and Field Meet in Dairen

It is gratifying to note that the results attained by the above team had in them something to satisfy its ambition. That is, Oda took sixth in the hop-step-and-jump, Takaishi fifth in the 100 and the 1,500 free style swimming races, Saito sixth in the 100 back stroke, the team of Takaishi, Onoda, Miyahata and Noda fourth in the 800 relay swim, and Naito, a feather weight wrestler, third in the catch-as-catch-can, scoring 15 points, though informal, in all. The nationwide joy in Japan was unbounded. Thus a new era full of prospects came in sight for Japanese sportsmen, who were then convinced of a possible winning of formal points in Olympics to come.

In the meantime sports in Japan were greatly improved, favourably affected by her participation in the last three Olympic Games. The more important of the many athletic meets had their inauguration in those days, —for example, the Meiji Shrine Athletic Meet held annually on a national scale and the Far Eastern Games held every other year. (It has now been decided that the latter shall be held once every four years.) They all contributed much to the assimilation of sports among all classes of people, though they had previously been confined to students.

It was with a full conviction and preparedness that Japan was represented by fifty-seven persons, an unprecedingly great number, in Amsterdam last year. These representatives, the dispatch of whom was liberally subscribed to materially and morally by the public, were nine for the management, five for the coaching staff, seventeen (including one girl) for the track and field team, eleven for swimming, eight for rowing, two for boxing, one for wrestling and four for horsemanship. With the exception of the four horsemen and the one wrestler, all the delegates were winners at local trials and finals held in Tokyo and Osaka. The selection of these delegates was conducted in such a way as to result in stimulating Japanese in as numerous fields of sport as possible, the winning of points being considered secondary; and accordingly representatives were selected in almost every event.

See then what these delegates actually accomplished at Amsterdam. Is it not surprising to find that Japan was there caused to be acclaimed champion twice, first by Oda in the hop-step-and-jump and next by Tsuruta in the 200 meter breast stroke. It is, moreover, to be remarked that these championship gainers, aided by other active delegates, placed Japan second in swimming, next to the United States, and seventh in track and field sports, coming after France. The places taken by the Japanese at Amsterdam are given in detail as follows:

TRACK AND FIELD

Marathon	K. Yamada	Fourth	2 hrs. 35 min. 29 sec.
	S. Tsuda	Sixth	2 hrs. 36 min. 20 sec.
Running high jump	K. Kimura	Sixth	1.88 metres
Hop-step-and-jump	M. Oda	First	15.21 metres
	C. Nambu	Fourth	15.01 metres
Pole vault	Y. Nakazawa	Sixth	3.90 metres
800 metre run (for women)	Miss K. Hitomi	Second	

SWIMMING

100 metres free style	K. Takaishi	Third	
100 metres back stroke	N. Iriye	Fourth	
200 metres breast stroke	Y. Tsuruta	First	2 min. 48.8 sec. (new Olympic record)
800 metres relay	Arai, Yoneyama, Sata, Takaishi	Second	9 min. 41.4 sec.

As for rowing, horsemanship, boxing and winter sports, in which contests were held at St. Moritz previously in winter, the Japanese representatives were not so successful as in the track and field events and swimming, but gained valuable experience, so that it is natural to expect that they will go forward in these particular fields as well. Now the evidence is unmistakable that the Japanese people have overcome a hitherto prevailing fear that their physical inferiority to foreign people was fatal.

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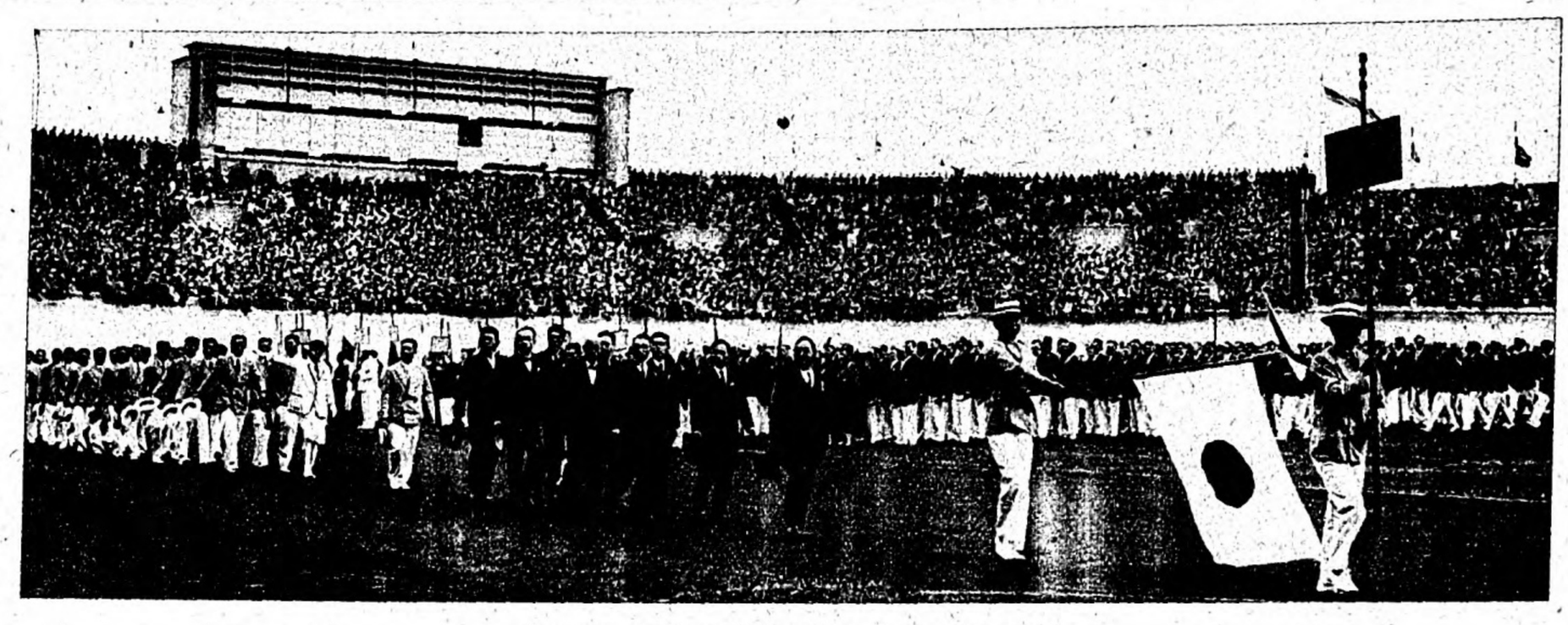
WORLD AND JAPAN RECORDS COMPARED

The year 1928 saw a series of outstanding international athletic meets connected with Japan, such as the Olympics in Amsterdam, the Franco-Japanese athletic meets, the expedition of the Waseda Athletic Team to Great Britain, the 3rd International Track and Field Meet in Paris, and the swimming contests between a Japanese team and such world championship holders as Weissmuller, Laufer, Wyatt, and Miss Helen Meany of the United States, Rademacher of Germany and Arne Borg of Sweden. The Japanese records established in these and like other meets are here compared with world records to give an idea of conditions in Japan's sports:



Japanese Section of the March Past at Amsterdam

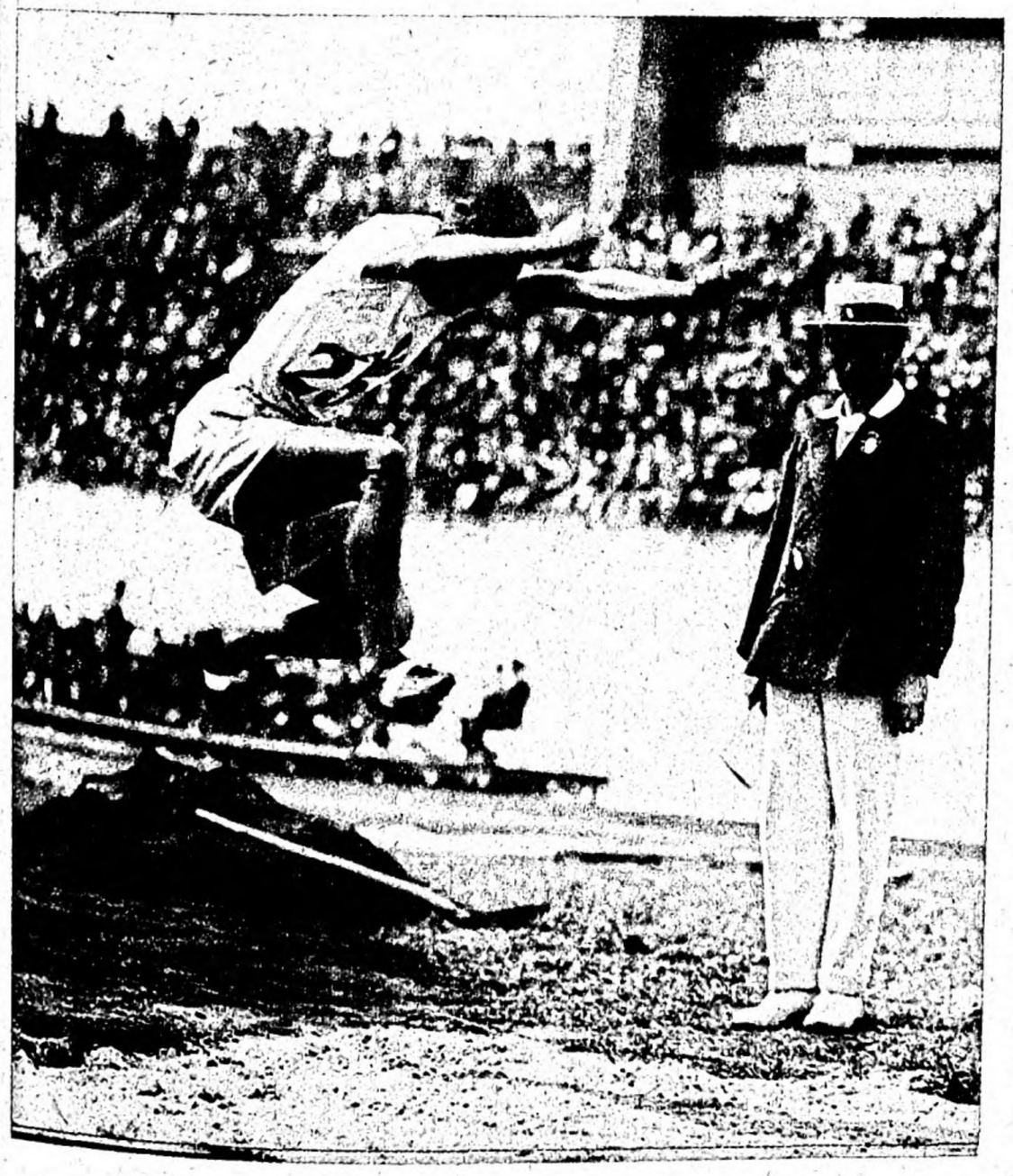
TRACK AND FIELD

(at the end of 1928)

Event	World Record & Holder		Japan Record & Holder		Percentage
	h. m. s.		h. m. s.		
100 metres	10.4	Paddock	10.7	I. Aizawa	0.972
400 metres	20.6	Locke	21.6	I. Aizawa	0.954
400 metres	47.4	Meredith	50.2	T. Noto	0.944
800 metres	1 50.6	Martin	1 58.6	Y. Kuwada	0.941
1,500 metres	3 51.0	Peltzer	4 7.0	K. Tsuchiya	0.935
5,000 metres	14 28.2	Nurmi	15 34.8	J. Nagatani	0.929
10,000 metres	30 6.2	Nurmi	32 11.8	J. Nagatani	0.944
Marathon	2 32 35.8	Kolehmainen	2 35 29.0	K. Yamada	0.981
	h. m. s.		h. m. s.		
High-Hurdles	14.6	W. Smith	15.3	Y. Miki	0.954
Low-Hurdles	23.0	Brookins	24.⅕	Y. Fukui	0.947
400 metre Hurdles	53.8	Peterson	57.0	Y. Fukui	0.944
Running High Jump	2.03 metres	Osborne	1.92 metres	M. Oda	0.933
Running Broad Jump	7.89 metres	Hubbard	7.38 metres	M. Oda	0.937
Hop-Step-and-Jump	15.525metres	Winter	15.41 metres	M. Oda	0.993
Pole Vault	4.267metres	Carr	3.91 metres	Y. Nakazawa	0.916
Shot	15.87 metres	Kuck	13.399metres	S. Mizokawa	0.844
Discus	48.20 metres	Houser	41.465metres	Y. Fujita	0.860
Javelin	69,88 metres	Pentilla	62.81 metres	K. Sumiyoshi	0.899
Hammer	57.77 metres	Ryan	45.27 metres	Y. Okita	0.784
	m. s.		m. s.		
400 metres	41.0	All America Team	43.2	Waseda U. Team	0.949
800 metres	1 27.0	All America Team	1 29.⅕	All Japan Team	0.975
1,600 metres	3 14.2	All America Team	3 25.8	All Japan Team	0.944
Decathlon	8053.29 points	Yrjola	6886.1823	T. Sai	0.855

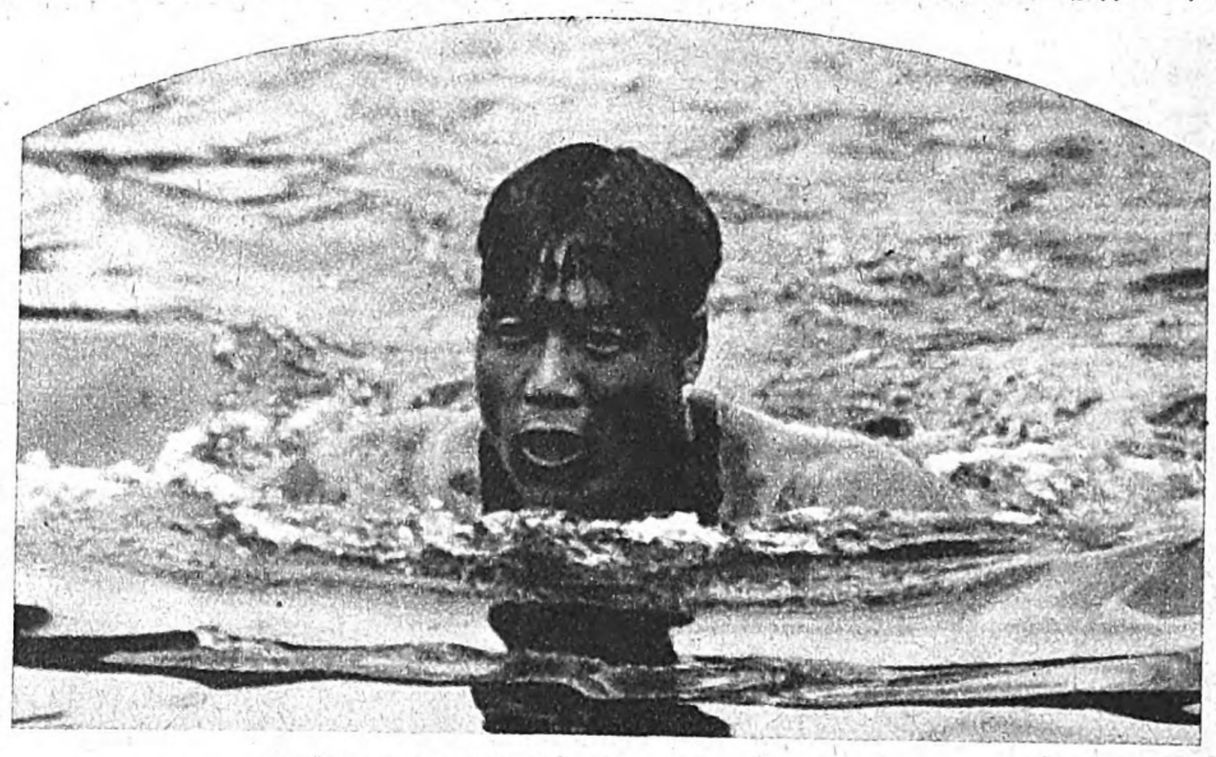
SWIMMING

Event	World Record & Holder		Japan Record & Holder		Percentage
	m. s.		m. s.		
100metres	57.4	Weissmuller	59.4	K. Takaishi	0.966
400metres	4 50.3	Arne Borg	5 3.4	K. Takaishi	0.957
1,500metres	19 7.2	Arne Borg	21 18.4	N. Arai	0.898
100metres Back	1 8.2	Cojack	1 13.2	N. Iriye	0.932
200metres Breas	2 48.0	Rademacher	2 52.6	Y. Tsuruta	0.973
800metres Relay	9 28.8	All America Team	9 38.2	All Japan Team	0.984



Oda in the Jump that Won Him First Place in the Hop-Step-and-Jump at Amsterdam

A comparison of the above table with the records at the end of 1927 is conspicuous in that in nine of the twenty-three events the Japanese record has been brought nearer to the world's during the last twelve months. But it is to be regretted that of late the record in such events as the shot, high hurdles and 1,600 metre relay have been more or less lowered and particularly that of the six swimming races named above a better record has been made in the 200 metre breast alone as compared with the 1927 records. In the 100, the 400 and the 1,500 metre free style there have been no new developments and in the 100 back and the 800 relay even a lowering of the records has resulted. But a new source of joy came to the Japanese people lately when the records by Iriye of 2 min. 37.8 sec. in the 200 metre back and of 5 min. 42 sec. in the 400 back, which were made in contests with American, German and Swedish champions last fall, were formally registered as world records.



Tsuruta in the 200 Meter Breast Stroke at Amsterdam

FRANCO-JAPAN ATHLETIC MEETS

As mentioned above, the year 1928 was conspicuous for the arrival in Japan of foreign champions in rugby and skiing and various other sports, of whom that of the French track and field team was the most exciting. It was all the more so because of the fact that the meets held were the first of the kind ever held in this country and that they followed immediately the Olympics in Asmterdam where France was seventh and Japan eighth. It was, however, disappointing that the French team was not in the best condition with a few of the strongest members not included. But before the meets it was believed that the French team, though a little handicapped, was equally balanced with the Japanese team, consisting of those specially selected through preliminary contests, many of the Olympic athletes and the Waseda University team fresh from an expedition to Great Britain.

The first of the two meets between these teams was held on Sept. 22 and 23 in Dairen, and the next on Oct. 6 and 7 in the Meiji Shrine grounds in Tokyo—in the latter meet the Japanese team was a little changed in membership and was made up of students exclusively. Each meet resulted unfavourably for the French, the score being 72 to 78 in the first meet and 71 to 77 in the last. Though the results shown in the meets were rather uninspiring, there was that in them to which importance may be attached. It was that a mutual and thorough understanding was arrived at between the youths of the two different races who participated in them, thereby contributing not a little towards the promotion of international amity. Much is expected in this direction also in the contests with a German team which is to reach Japan soon. The following are the results in the first meet in Dairen:

TRACK

100 metres.—K. Oka (Japan), 1st (11.2 sec.); R. Yoshioka (J.), 2nd; Fischer (France), 3rd; Crestois (F.), 4th.

200 metres.—R. Yoshioka (J.), 1st (22.8 sec.); Crestois (F.), 2nd; K. Yoshioka (J.), 3rd; Fischer (F.), 4th.

400 metres.—Dupont (F.), 1st (50.2 sec); Woljung (F.), 2nd; T. Ishibashi (J.), 3rd; H. Okada (J.), 4th.

800 metres.—T. Hamada (J.), 1st (2 min. 0.8 sec.); Keller (F.), 2nd; H. Okada (J.), 3rd; Jousse (F.), 4th.

1,500 metres.—S. Tsuda (J.), 1st (4 min. 8.6 sec.); Loiseau (F.), 2nd; Hauger (F.), 3rd; S. Hisatomi (J.), 4th.

5,000 metres.—Boitard (F.), 1st (16 min. 0.8 sec.); S. Tsuda (J.), 2nd; J. Nagatani (J.), 3rd; Leduc (F.), 4th.

110 metre Hurdles.—Y. Miki (J.), 1st (15.4 sec.); Adelheim (F.), 2nd; T. Tsuruoka (J.), 3rd; Lewden (F.), 4th.

1,000 metre Medley Relay.—French Team (Crestois, Fischer, Krotoff, Woljung), 1st (1 min. 58.6 sec.); Japanese Team (Sato, Nakata, Yoshioka, Ishibashi).

800 metre Relay.—Japanese Team (Yoshioka, Nambu, Oka, Nakata), 1st (1 min. 29.2 sec.); French Team (Fischer, Adelheim, Woljung, Krotoff).

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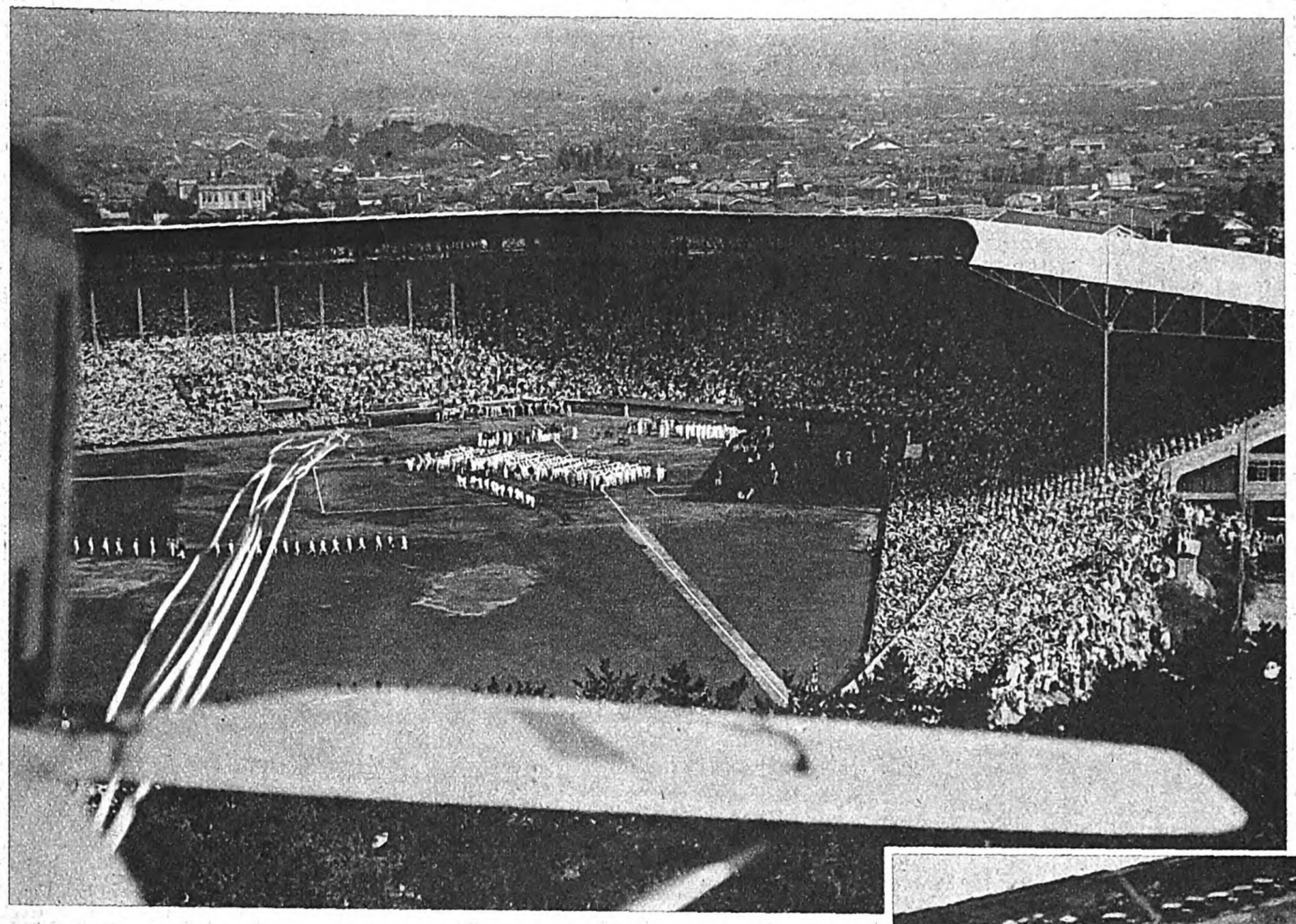


Koshien Field from an Asahi Plane on the Opening Day of the All Japan Baseball Championship Series for Schools of Middle Grade

FIELD

Shot.—Noel (F.), 1st (13.71 metres); S. Takada (J.), 2nd (12.56 metres); Lasserre (F.), 3rd (12.47 metres); Y. Fujita (J.), 4th (11.63 metres).

Discus—Noel (F.), 1st (46.10 metres); Winter (F.), 2nd (42.49 metres); I. Furuyama (J.), 3rd (39.11 metres); Y. Okita (J.), 4th (38.96 metres).

Javelin.—K. Sumiyoshi (J.), 1st (62.10 metres); Degland (F.), 2nd (58.52 metres); T. Suganuma (J.), 3rd (54.83 metres); Flouret (F.), 4th (53.49 metres).

Running High Jump.—Menard (F.), 1st (1.92 metres); Lewden (F.), 2nd (1.90 metres); K. Kimura (J.), 3rd (1.87 metres); J. Hattori (J.), 4th (1.84 metres).

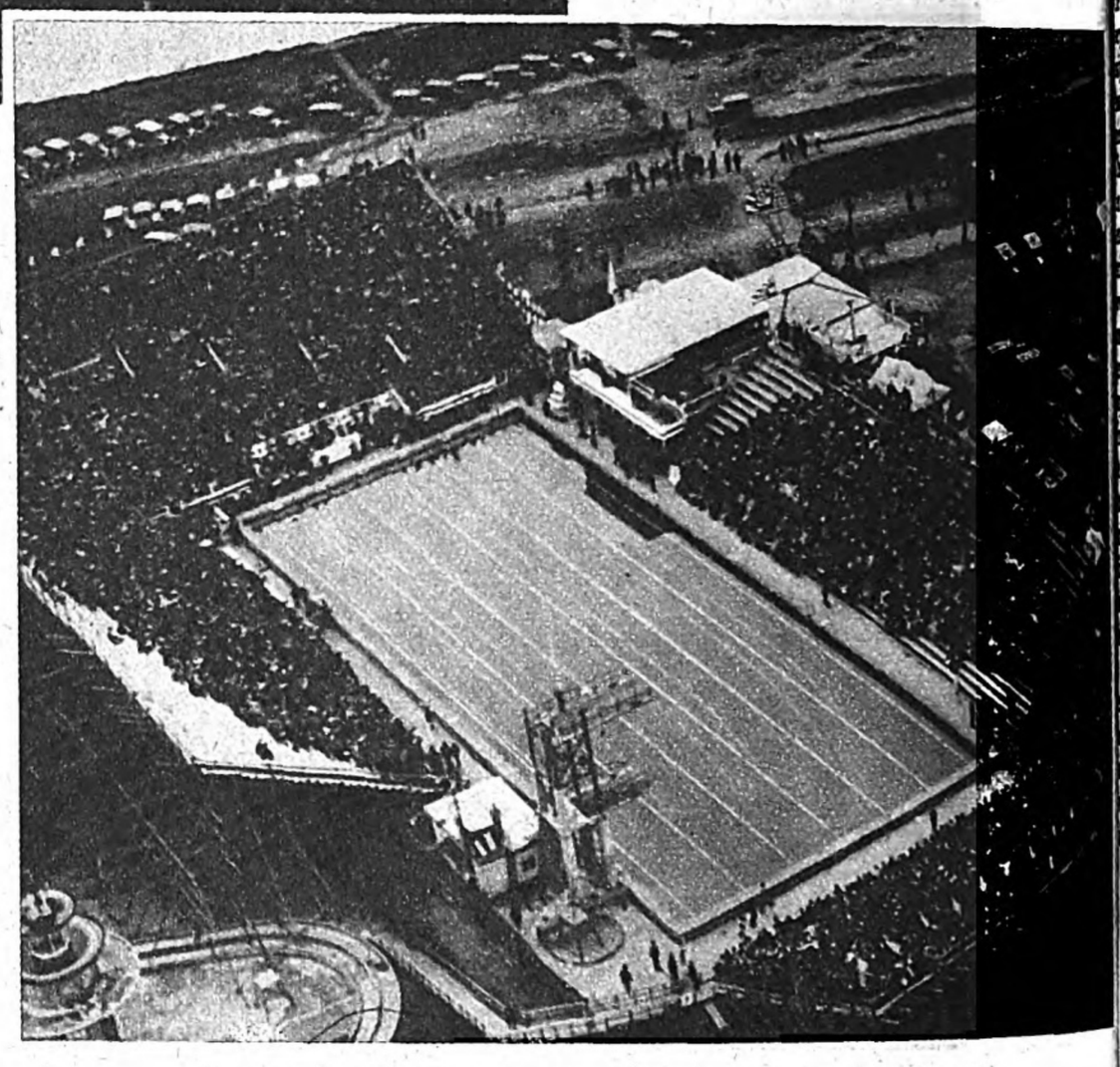
Running Broad Jump.—C. Nambu (J.), 1st (7.30 metres); M. Oda (J.), 2nd (7.26 metres); Flouret (F.), 3rd (6.73 metres); Degland (F.), 4th (6.20 metres).

Hop-Step-and-Jump.—C. Nambu (J.), 1st (14,88 metres); Tatenaka (J.), 2nd (13.93 metres); Degland (F.), 3rd (12.14 metres); Adelheim (F.), 4th (11.71 metres).

Pole Vault.—Vintousky (F.), 1st (3.8[illegible] metres); K. Kasahara (J.), 2nd (3.[illegible] metres); T. Tajiri (J.), 3rd (3.[illegible] metres); Lewden (F.), 4th (3.6[illegible] metres).

NORWEGIAN SKIERS IN JAPAN

Three world famous Norwegian skiers, accepting an invitation from Baron Kishichiro Okura, arrived in Japan towards the end of 1928. They were Messrs. Helset, vice-president of a ski club in Norway, Kolterud, and Snersrud. They stayed in this country over the year-end, attending and coaching Japanese skiers at such ski meets as the All-Japan Intercollegiate Ski Championships at Sankaku Yama in Hokkaido and the 7th All-Japan Skiing Championships at Kanaya San, Tokyo. Besides, they gave advice for the building of "Schantze" at various skiing grounds. Skiing in Japan is still young, having been first introduced twenty years ago. It was in the 2nd Winter Games of the Olympics at St. Moritz last year that she first joined in any world skiing activities. But the progress she has recently made is remarkable, resulting in the opening of a lot of new grounds and in the popularizing of the sport.



Tamagawa Pool from an Asahi Plane on the Day of the International Swimming Meet

Japanese and Foreign Swimmers and Divers at the Tamagawa Pool, Takyo. Front row second from left, Laufer, third from left, Tsuruta, sixth from left, Weissmueller, with Miss Meany, Wyatt and Borg to his left. Back row third from right, Takaishi

BASEBALL CHAMPIONSHIP SERIES

It is not too much to say that the All Japan Baseball Championship Series for Schools of Middle Grade, which is held annually at Koshien near Osaka under the auspices of the Asahi, is in every sense symbolic of the popularity of sports in Japan. Last year was held the 14th meet of this series, the history of which, if studied from the start, furnishes an interesting record of extensive development.

At the time of the 1st meet preliminary contests were held in only ten districts, into which the whole country was divided, and the teams participating in them were not more than seventy-two. And the number of people who witnessed the final contests held for five days in Osaka never exceeded ten thousand. In the year 1928 the teams playing in the preliminaries, held in twenty-two districts (here the figure is more than doubled) throughout the country, numbered more than four hundred, and the multitudes of people attending the final games held for eight days at Koshien numbered roughly six hundred thousand. The largest number for any one day was one hundred and twenty thousand.

The stands at Koshien accommodate about 75,000 people and compare not unfavourable with those in the United States. Four or five years ago when the grounds were built it was believed that it would be ten years or more before the stands were ever filled to their capacity. But the need of an extension of the stands was keenly felt immediately after their completion and was realized last year. Now their capacity is 85,000 people.

Nation-wide enthusiasm is shown in this country over this series, beginning with the preliminary contests started in the middle of July and ending with the final games closing in the middle of August. The series is one of the most fashionable subjects of conversation during a month in Summer. It is no exaggeration to say that every-day greetings are commonly exchanged between acquaintances with some reference to it. The unusual popularity this series has acquired among the Japanese is due to the games being well organized and their showing that kind of manliness which appeals to the Japanese. But it is above all conspicuous that the slogan of this series, "Be fair and brave," has been strictly adhered to from the beginning, which fact has been most appealing and valuable for the people who are interested in it.

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The Osaka Asahi and Its Jubilee Celebration

The Osaka Asahi, published by the Asahi Publishing Co., celebrated its Jubilee on Jan. 25, 1929. There are not many newspapers which can recall such a long past, and the few dailies that have lived through more than five decades have all changed hands several times. So the Osaka Asahi takes pride in being the only newspaper in Japan which has survived the vicissitudes of time under the same proprietors for fifty years. Government persecutions have not been able to sway in the least the independent attitude of the paper in almost all controversies, social, political, financial and what not. This fair and impartial attitude of the Osaka Asahi has earned the gratitude of the public, with the result that it has enjoyed prosperity and occupies a unique position in Japan's newspaper world.

At the time of its birth the Osaka Asahi was a very small affair. The only press printing the Asahi at that time was a primitive hand machine. There were only eighteen printers and typesetters, while the editorial staff consisted of seven members. This small newspaper has grown to be the largest paper in the Orient. From a private concern the Asahi has evolved into a joint stock company with its main offices in Osaka and a branch office in Tokyo, where the Tokyo Asahi is published. The present site of the main plant, where the Osaka Asahi is published, covers with its three buildings, an area of 1,835 tsubo, or an acre and a half. At present the Osaka Asahi uses American Hoe Company's Super-Speed Printing Machines, made especially for the Asahi according to the Asahi's plans. The units number seventeen. Besides the above, the Asahi is equipped with two German Koenig and Bauer Gravure presses, two British Penrose Velo-Gravure presses, German Iris four colour presses, etc. With these presses, the Osaka Asahi publishes, in addition to her dailies, the Shûkan Asahi (Weekly), Asahigraph (Weekly Illustrated), Screen and Stage (Monthly), Asahi Sports (Bi-monthly), Asahi Almanac, Present-Day Japan (English Edition published annually), Asahi Camera, Women (Monthly), Children's Asahi, Asahi Economic Year Book, and a Library Edition of its two big dailies. Besides these, the Osaka Asahi publishes from time to time books and pamphlets. The Tokyo Asahi, the sister paper published by the branch office in Tokyo, is housed in a new steel and ferro-concrete building of modern style, covering an area of 1,415 tsubo or nearly one acre and a fifth. The Tokyo Asahi uses twelve units of the Super High Speed Printing Machines. Both the Osaka and Tokyo Asahi are distributed throughout Japan and in China, the South Seas, and even in Europe and America. The Osaka Asahi, including its evening editions, publishes eight editions every day, while the Tokyo Asahi publishes seven. The Asahi also publishes special supplements for some localities, the Osaka Asahi issuing thirty-one and the Tokyo Asahi twenty-four. The Osaka Asahi has over fourteen pages and the Tokyo Asahi over twelve. There are fourteen directors and councillors, 1,194 staff members (of whom 717 are on the Osaka Asahi), 1,871 other employees (of whom 1,098 are attached to the Osaka Asahi), and 603 correspondents in local districts (of whom 334 report for the Osaka Asahi), making a total of 3,682. If those who engage in the sale and distribution of the papers are included, the number reaches several tens of thousands. The wonderful growth of the Osaka Asahi during the five decades of its existence may be attributed firstly to the fact that the Asahi is so edited as to be read by all classes of society, and that the journal has always kept ahead of its contemporaries in new equipment and new enterprises, secondly to an independent and impartial attitude on all problems, which gives its leading articles great weight. The Asahi is a joint stock company, but its shares are not open to public subscription and are owned entirely by the members of the company. This helps the Asahi to assume a fair and independent position in all controversies of national importance, unmolested by any special interests. The Osaka Asahi has always insisted on the importance of air navigation. It has been true to its arguments and earned the fame of being the first journal to utilise aeroplanes in the transportation of manuscripts and the distribution of its papers. In July, 1925, the Asahi despatched two aeroplanes to Europe through Siberia. They covered 17,400 kilometres in 116 hours. At present the Asahi has fifteen aeroplanes, including the following makes: Salmsons, Breguet XIX A 2, Dornier-Komet, Dornier Mercure, Mitsubishi MC-I., Kawasaki KDC2, and Aichi AB-I. The Asahi's special correspondents and reporters are scattered throughout the world, and the Asahi has special contracts with the London Times, the New York Times, the Journal of Paris, and the Scherl of Berlin. Besides these special services, the Asahi subscribes to the service of the Japan Press Association and the Nippon Dempo Tsushin. Thus all the important affairs of the world are daily reported to the Asahi's readers.

By way of celebrating the jubilee, the Osaka Asahi inaugurated various plans for social service. The plans were published on January 1, 1929. They are as follows:

1. Contribution of ¥500,000 for social activities. The Asahi's Social Activities Corporation, which was made a corporate juridical person in January, 1928, by permission of the Home Minister, has for its object the betterment of society and the happiness of its individual members. The corporation had been engaged in various useful enterprises for a year and had achieved considerably. Seeing the necessity of funds to allow the corporation to function more actively, the Asahi contributed to it five hundred thousand yen to be paid in five yearly installments.

2. The creation of the Asahi Medal. In Japan the only prize for those who have contributed toward world culture has been the Imperial Academy Prize. Now the Asahi Medal has been added to it. Those who make great achievements in science, art, sports, aerial navigation, etc. will be chosen and rewarded the Medal.

3. Offer of prizes for literary work. The Asahi has often offered prizes for literary work, thus giving an opportunity for unknown literary talent to reveal itself. At the time of the Jubilee, the Asahi offered prizes of ten thousand yen for various sorts of literary work including a long scenario on the subject, "Society after Fifty Years."

4. Despatch of correspondents to the markets of the world. Seven staff members have been sent to various parts of the world to explore markets for the export of Japanese commodities. The recent inactivity of the export trade of Japan is partly due to a lack of thorough investigation of foreign markets. To the changes in demand for commodities, through changes in taste on the part of customers, and the necessary changes in the articles which constitute important factors in commerce, no sufficient attention has been paid, thus causing Japanese exporters to recede from markets acquired during the world war. In order to stimulate our export trade it is of paramount necessity not only to maintain the already established position in markets abroad, but to find promising new markets throughout the world. Therefore the Asahi's undertaking in the investigation of new markets is most timely. The markets being explored are Australia and New Zealand, Turkey and Persia, French Indo-China and Siam, the Russian Maritime Provinces and Kamchatka, the South Sea Islands, South America, etc.

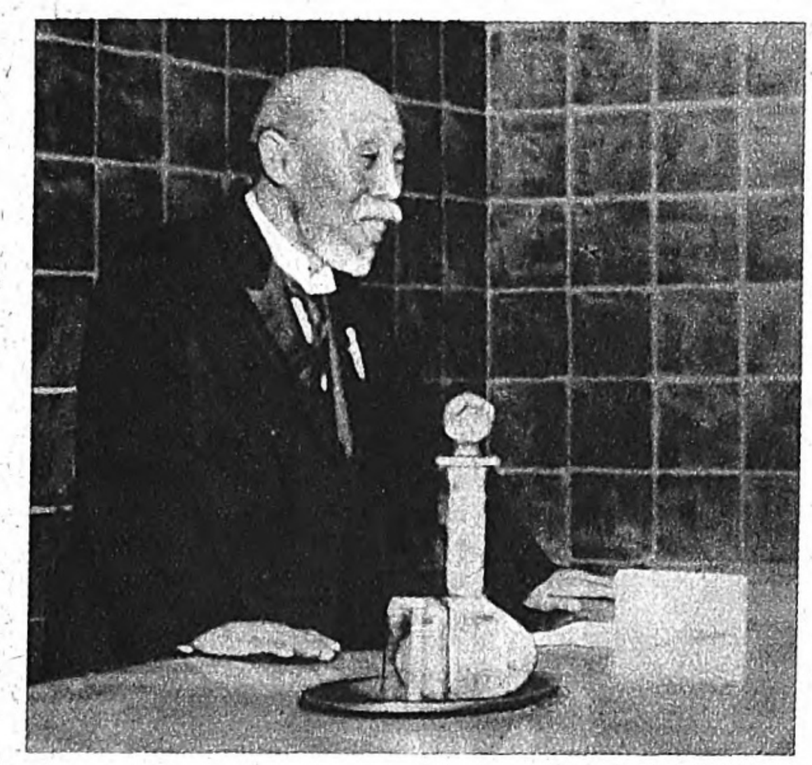
5. An exposition of early western culture in Japan. In 1928 the Osaka Asahi held an exhibition of Tenpyo culture, at which the highest art and culture of the Tenpyo Era was exhibited and introduced to the public with the assistance and co-operation of scholars in this field. Again at the time of its jubilee, the Osaka Asahi held an exhibition of early western culture in Japan, for a month beginning March 10th. At it were exhibited a screen on which are pictured Dutch vessels, owned by the Imperial Household, an illustration of which is found in colours as the frontispiece of this magazine, and many other precious historic objects, such as writings, valuable books, pictures, utensils, and other things connected with the introduction of western civilisation and culture into Japan. The undertaking was greatly appreciated by the public.

During the period of the Exhibition, a series of lectures on early western culture in Japan was given in the Asahi Auditorium by well-known scholars.

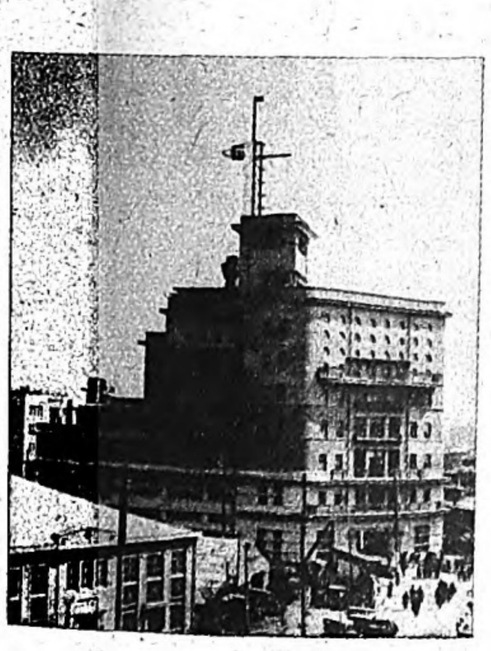
On January 25th, on which day fell the jubilee, about fifteen hundred prominent persons of Osaka, Kobe, and Kyoto honoured the Asahi with their presence. His Excellency Sir John Tilley, British Ambassador, who happened to be in Osaka, honoured the Osaka Asahi with his presence. On the following evening, the celebration of the jubilee by the Asahi staff was held in the Asahi Auditorium. Mr. Ryohei Murayama, President of the Asahi, speaking on this occasion, declared that co-operation among the men in any undertaking is the first condition for success, especially in the newspaper business. The present prosperity of the Asahi is due to the co-operation of all those connected with it. This statement by the President made a deep impression on all present and was responded to by Mr. Misao Takahara, Editor of the Osaka Asahi, who said that except the Asahi, there is probably no newspaper in the world that has not changed its proprietor during fifty years. Indeed the Asahi is proud of the fact that it has continued up to the present under the Murayama Dynasty for fifty years and is able to celebrate its fiftieth birthday in such vigor and prosperity.

The morning edition of the Osaka Asahi on the 25th of January was full of telegraphic messages from all parts of the world, including King Albert of Belgium and M. Doumergue, President of France. The principal articles dealt with the changes in customs and habits, which had come about during fifty years, and prophecies for the next fifty years.

In celebrating the jubilee, the Asahi staff could not afford to neglect the services of the late Mr. Riichi Uyeno, who was the partner of the present President, Mr. Ryohei Murayama. The chief members held a ceremony before his tomb at Abeno, Osaka, and informed his spirit of the jubilee.



Mr. Ryohei Murayama, President of the Asahi Publishing Company, Delivering an Address at the Meeting in Celebration of the Fiftieth Birthday of the Osaka Asahi



The Tokyo Asahi Building

The Osaka Asahi Buildings

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(*Continued from Page 76*)

ISSA AND NOJIRI

the shrine keeper pawned it at a certain shop in Furuma, which shop soon burned down. Then the *gohei* went from house to house always causing fires, till finally several men of foresight and understanding hunted it up and bought it and took it back to the shrine. And would that that had ended the fires.

Issa sang of the mountains rising as if from the waters of the lake,

Kosui yori shutsugen shitari
kumo no mine

From the lake,
Springing up into the sky,
The clouded peaks.

Of cloud-capped Kurohime, the rounded larch-covered peak to the west, which in softness of appearance and in tradition is feminine, he is said to have sung in his youth,

Kurohime ya iroke zuita ka
wata eboshi

Has Kurohime
Turned to colored thoughts of love?
See her bride's head-band.

Kurohime is an extinct volcano 6435 feet high, with a deep wooded and flower-studded crater in the top of it. There is a little pond in a fine grove of trees at the west end of the crater, and nearby, in a hollow of bamboo grass, other lesser pools called the Seven Ponds. On a steep little crater peak called Kokurohime (Little Black Princess) there was hawking in Tokugawa days, and a keeper of hawks lived there. The crater rim is highest on the east side toward Nojiri, and on the summit there is a little Benzaiten shrine. Near the top grows a sort of fungus parasite, in appearance like parched rice grains, which lifts up the surface of the soil and crackles under foot and can be eaten. It is called *tengu no mugimeshi* (goblin's boiled barley). But the shoots of a dwarf bamboo called *nemagari* (root twister) which grows on the mountain are more nearly delicious.

The spirit of the larger pond in the crater at the top of the mountain is of course a snake, and her story is this: In the Tembun Period (1552-1555), the lord of the castle of Odate on the edge of the city of Nakano had a superlatively beautiful daughter named Kurohime, who was seen by the snake lord of Onuma Pond not far off in the mountains and loved by him to such distraction that he disguised himself as a handsome youth and asked her father for her hand. But her father was suspicious and put him through tests of steel which endangered his life and made him so furious that he destroyed the castle with a flood and killed the father. And the princess escaped and fled to the pond on the top of Kurohime, into which she threw herself, and of which she became the spirit. And every year at the time of the festival in her old home town of Nakano, she comes down from the mountain and repairs thither, and on her way back she always spends one night with the snake lord of Lake Nojiri, returning the next day on a black cloud which trails itself down from the summit to meet her.

Of Myōkō, standing in rough masculinity across the gorge of the Seki River to the north of Kurohime, Issa wrote,

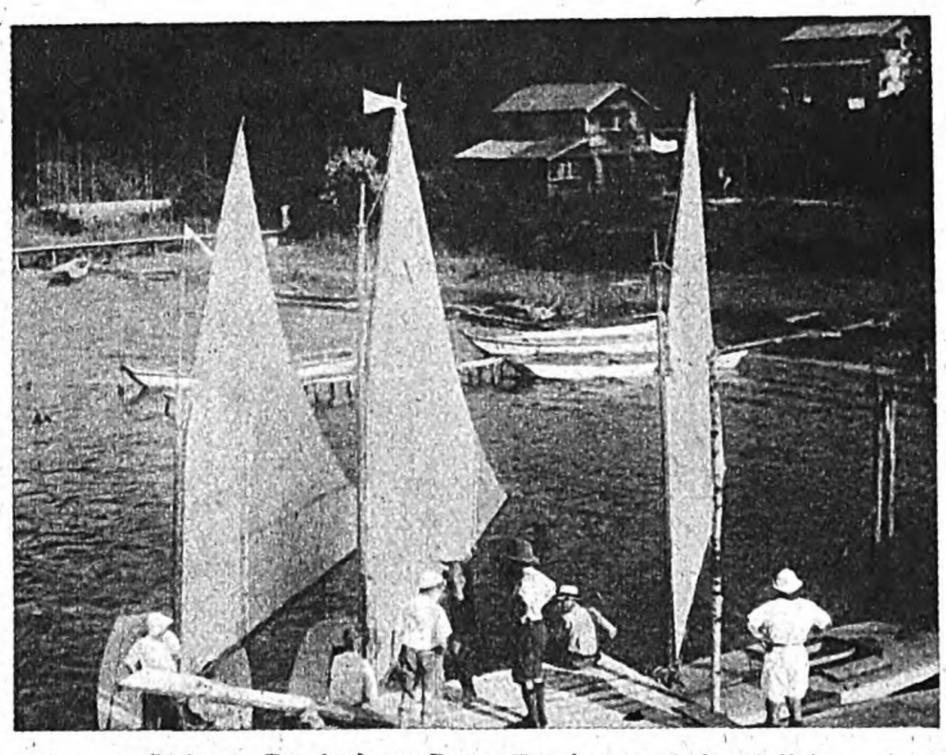
Yama kake ya shiranai kao shite
shigi no tatsu

The mountain crumbles,
And with look of unconcern,
Up rises a snipe.

This refers to a great landslide, the scar of which can still be seen on the face of the mountain. Most beautiful of all the mountains from the lake, Myōkō is a rugged and craggy peak a little under 8,000 feet high, with long grass-covered slopes at the bottom and looking much as Mount Fuji would if the upper third of it were blown off by a volcanic explosion. It is younger than Madoro and Kurohime and still gives out volcanic fumes and sulphur in Jigokudani (Hell Valley) above Tsubame (Swallow) hot spring, a primitive little place in a beautiful canyon on the north side of the mountain as seen from Nojiri.

There is a little Amida shrine on the top of Myōkō, from which a wonderful view is afforded of the Japan Sea and the Island of Sado, the snowy peaks of the Japan Alps, Asama near Karuizawa, and even Fuji, the northern end of whose volcanic system Myōkō is, away to the south beyond invisible Tōkyō.

On the lower slopes, which the Japanese call *susono* (skirt moors), are the well-known hot springs of Akakura, Ike-no-Taira and, near Taguchi Station, Bunto. The water for all of these is brought from high up on the mountain, that from a spur called



Catboats Ready for a Race, Kamiyama, Lake Nojiri

Akakura being sulphurous and that from Jigokudani carbonated. Akakura, the farthest of these resorts from Nojiri, is five miles away. In winter all this slope is now one of the most popular ski grounds in Japan.

Iizuna (Boiled-rice Rope) to the south of Kurohime is also an extinct volcano. The top is badly crumbled and forms three peaks, the highest of which is nearly 6,000 feet above the sea. The strange name may have come from the *tengu no mugimeshi*, which grows on this mountain as well as on Kurohime. The derivation worked out on this basis is from Iizuna (Boiled-rice Sand), in which the *suna* (sand) was later written with the character for "rope." But it is more likely that the characters merely represent some earlier name whose meaning has long since been forgotten. At the summit there is a shrine called Iizuna Gongen. In 1233 a man named Ito Tadatsuna is said to have climbed this mountain and fasted for many years, finally acquiring supernatural powers, which he passed on to his son, Sennichi Tayu. Both father and son lived to be very old and were venerated as holy hermits called *sennin*. Such hermits caught "foxes" known as *kuda kitsune*, "no larger than rats," on the mountain and did with them magic things beyond the power of man.

Togakushi, the rugged pile of peaks seen in the distance up between Kurohime and Iizuna from Nojiri, rises in its highest point more than 8,000 feet above the sea. The name of the mountain (Door Hiding) comes from the old belief that when the Sun Goddess in the Kojiki story hid in the cave on the High Plain of Heaven and Ama-no-Tajikara-no-Kami, the god of the powerful arms, got a hold on the rock door and hurled it out into space, it landed here and formed this mountain. Therefore at the Okusha, or inner shrine, it is this god who is worshipped. There are three shrines altogether. And not far from the Okusha down on the highland pasture there is a spring pond known as Nembutsu Ike (Prayer Pond), the water of which is said to have the magic power of causing rain to fall if poured on a rice-field in time of drouth.

A little less than four miles from Nojiri up the Seki river gorge between Myōkō and Kurohime, is the beautiful waterfall, Nae-no-Taki, or Jishin-daki (Earthquake Waterfall), the latter a substitute name for the former, which comes from *nari* (sounding), an old word for "earthquake." This fall is the lower of four, the heights of which are given in order up the stream as 180 feet, 120 feet, 120 feet and 60 feet, all of which must be too great. But Jishin-daki is wonderful as it thunders down over a straight rock wall into its great pool, seeming to make the earth tremble and filling the valley with rainbow-tinted spray. Issa, looking through this mist of spray at some flowering cherry trees near at hand, compared them to distant trees making a cloud on the mountains.

Taki keburu
soba de miru
sae hana
no kumo

Smokes the
waterfall,
And even
seen close at
hand,
The cherry
flowers are
clouds.

An old legend says that the spirit lord of Jishin-daki is a big crab who has ten little crabs every year. These, when they are big enough, he leads down to Lake Nojiri and causes to attack and devour the ten offspring which the snake lord of the lake also has every year. The snake is angry and raves, but he can do nothing in fight against the iron-like shell and claws of the crab, so his descendants never increase, but the crab's go on prospering and are steadily filling all the Seki valley.

Near the waterfall is the Takasawa power plant of the Shinano Electric Company, and up behind it is the cave of a famous man named Ogata Shuma, the Japanese Robin Hood of the Ashikaga Period, who, the son of a lord down in Kyūshū, was carried away to Shinano at the age of two by a faithful servant when his father was killed and was raised there in the home where she was born; and afterwards, though he at first intended to avenge his father's death, he drifted off to the top of Myōkō, where a hermit named Sosen Dōjin taught him magic. Then he went to Myōgi San in Jōshū for a time and later all over Japan, calling himself Jiraiya, the virtuous robber, and destroying the wicked, punishing the rapacious, teaching virtue and filial piety and helping the poor, and incidentally the moving picture companies of modern times. Then he came back and destroyed a great snake that lived on Kurohime for his teacher, and killing a robber leader named Yasha Gorō, took over that worthy's cave for himself and his followers.

The interesting facts and fancies of this rare district are legion, but a short article must not try to be an encyclopaedia. Old Issa's spirit seems to brood over all this country. And Nojiri goes on trying to succeed. Not counting an expensive twelve year quarrel started with Kashiwabara over a boundary and taxes in 1873, which is hard to classify, the little village has made five outstanding efforts to put itself on the map.

The first was an irrigation project, in which a cut was begun in 1877 through the hills southwest of the lake to carry water to the rice-fields beyond, but this was objected to and stopped by a district down the Seki river in Echigo that had traditional rights to the lake water.

The next was a great toll bridge built from Nojiri village over to the island in 1881-1882. It was 1704 feet long, 5 feet wide, planked with chestnut laid on piles of cryptomeria 12 feet apart, some of them 99 feet long with 78 feet under water. It was known as the Mizu Bashi (Good Omen Bridge) and was expected to bring prosperity, but it cost more than twice the estimated amount and led to failure in interest payments and court proceedings and bankruptcy, and finally rotted out of existence in 1892, since which time it has been forgotten except for some old pictures, one of which hangs by the shrine on the island.

The next attempt was to stock the lake with fish, and that has gone on periodically ever since, without too great success. In order of plentifulness, the fish that can be caught in Lake Nojiri are dace, German carp, carp, salmon trout, lake trout and pond-smelt, but the fishing is not good. There are many small shrimps, a few snapping turtles, superstitiously respected, three or four different kinds of shell fish and some eels and singing frogs. A local belief is that in years of good crops, many dace are caught, but not many salmon trout, while in years of poor crops, it is the other way round.

The next venture was in the encouragement of a summer resort. Along about 1913, a few Japanese from the great cities of Tōkyō and Ōsaka came and began to build summer cottages near the village. Then in 1922 came the first of a little 43-acre settlement of foreigners on a low hill called Kamiyama on the south shore of the lake about a mile from the village, which during the eight years they have been there has grown to 89 cottages, 7 stores and 3 public buildings, with tennis courts, playgrounds, rowboats and sailboats, all of which has caused a more rapid development of other parts of the lake.

The last venture has been an agreement giving water rights to the Chūō Electric Power Company, which is now completing a tunnel through the edge of Madoro from the old lake basin of Furumi to maintain the water level in Lake Nojiri, which they plan to raise permanently, and this has naturally increased the price of land to be bought up and flooded near the village.

Issa would be surprised if he could come back today and see the crowds, including foreigners, unloading from trains at Kashiwabara in the summer, the automobiles racing over the old Hokkoku Kaidō, and the electric lights twinkling around the shores and reflected in the waters of the quiet lake he knew, not to mention an occasional movie and its band in his old town. He once saw foreigners in Nagasaki and wrote of them as wonders, but the other things, along with our forefathers, he could never have imagined. The quiet vale where he lived has changed that much, but still it is so calm and old-worldly that a verse of his, today to be found carved on a green stone under the big cryptomerias that surround the little shrine of Suwa where he played lonesomely as a child, offers, though in its day it was meant to describe all Japan, the best note on which to end:

Matsu kage ni nete kuu rokujū
yo shū kana

In the shade of pines,
All in peace they sleep and eat,
The sixty-odd clans.

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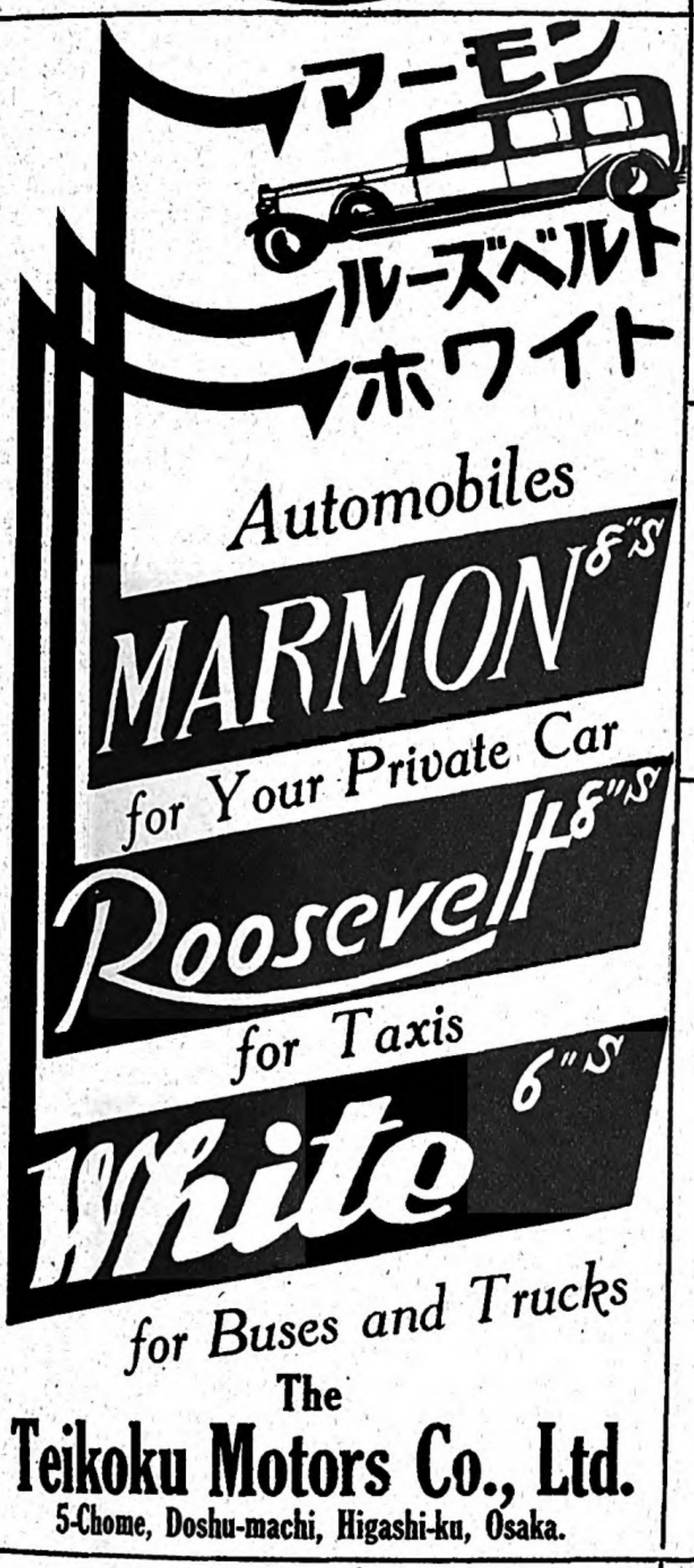

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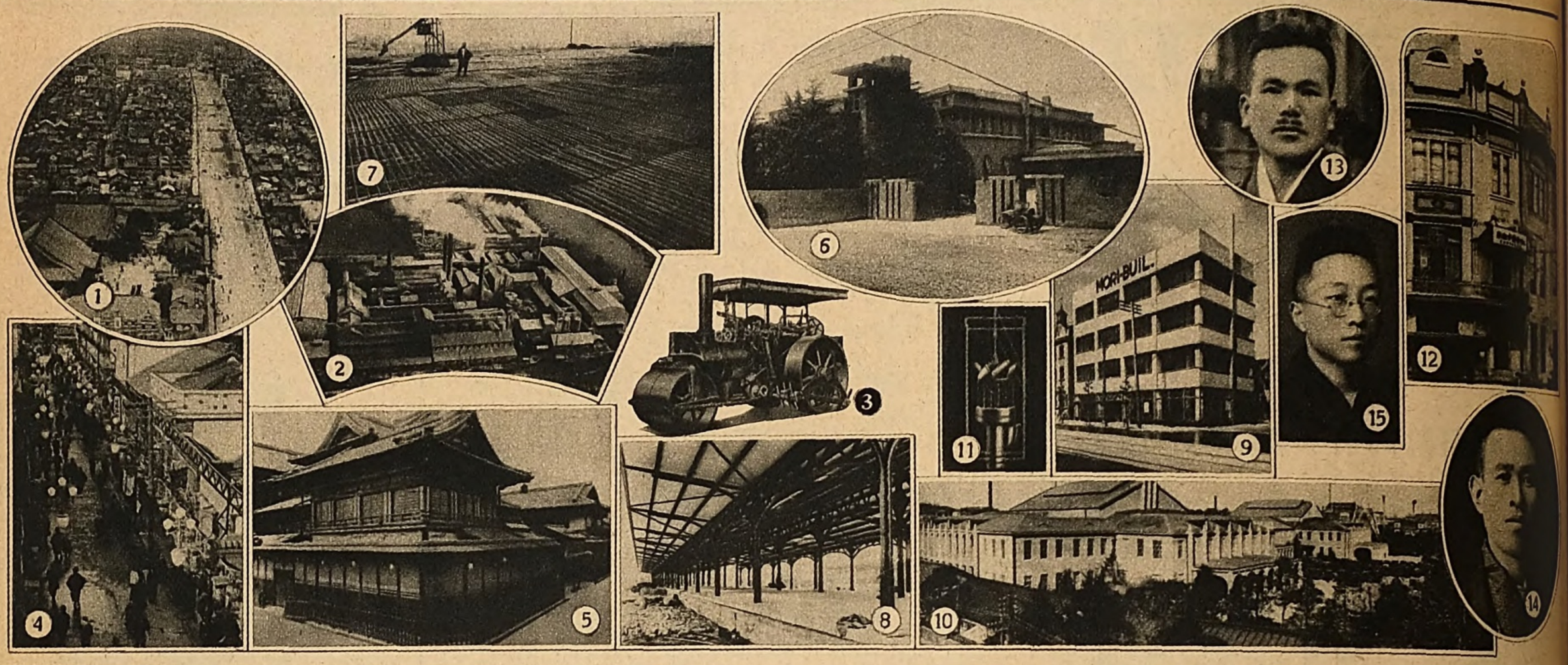

PHOTOS:

1. Mido-suji, under Construction
2. Factory of the Osaka Ceramics and Cement Co.
3. Roller of the Asano Bussan Kaisha
4. Shinsaibashi-suji, a shopping street in Osaka, decorated by the Tamai Glass Manufacturing Co.
5. Horiye stage for Japanese dances
6. Premier's official residence, in which Diamond Rib-Laths is used
7. A locomotive-house at Himeji
8. Minatogawa Station, on the roof of wkich Shibata iron plates are used
9. Mori Building, constructed by the Mo—rimoto Kenchiku-sha
10. Upper and Lower Houses of the Diet, the floors of which are covered with the linoleum of the Toyo Linoleum Co.
11. Yamazaki's self-revolving smoke-prevention apparatus
12. Busy Workers of the Nankai Goshi Kaisha, prominent cleaners of buildings
13. Mr. Yoneda Taichiro, president of the Yamato Shokai,
14. Mr. Yoshizumi Waichiro, an outstanding figure in the paintstuff industry
15. Owner of the Taiyosha Book Store, widely known for its books on architecture

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The new street called Mido-Suji in the city of Osaka is regarded as a model of street building, and the entire construction work was done by the Sakasho-Gumi of Osaka. Construction tandem rollers were supplied by the Osaka Branch of the Asano Bussan Co. and Cement by the Osaka Ceramics and Cement Manufacturing Co. The latter is known for the manufacture of Lion brand cement. The man-hole lids were supplied by the Toyama Cast Iron Works.

Japan Diamond Rib-Laths are manufactured by the Nisshin Works at Asahi-Machi, Shikanjima, Osaka. The Sankyo Trade Co. at Itchome, Yedobashi, Nipponbashi, Tokyo is the sole agent. The laths are used for ceilings, roofs, and many other purposes and they are purchased by the Railway Department and other government offices. The iron and steel manufactured by the Inoue Koji Stores at Awaza, Osaka, and the "Daiden" electric autogenous welding apparatus manufactured by the Osaka Electric Co., at Shikitsu-Machi, Osaka are popular.

The Yoshizumi Waichiro Firm at Bakuromachi, Osaka, is known for the manufacture of gold, aluminium, and other silver leaf, glass pearls, etc. The painting materials manufactured by the firm produce pleasing effects and are economical, as their use is so simple that anybody can apply them. They are widely used for bridges, motor-cars, iron frames, etc. Pure aluminium dust, which is used for silver enamel, fireworks and painting is much prized now that the silvering is popular in cities. The aluminium dust sold by the Yamato Shokai at Shimo-Dori, Minami Horie, Osaka, is popular for the prevention of rust, and for assuring the durability of things covered with it.

The roof tiles manufactured by the Japan Galvanization Co. have enjoyed epochmaking sales. The company's products are known as Shibata's iron plate roofing and are patented. These tiles are used on railway stations throughout the country.

The best linoleum is produced by the Toyo Linoleum Co. The Nankai Co. at Higashi Tanaka, Osaka, can be recommended for the cleaning of buildings.

Yamazaki's automatic revolving ventilators and Yamazaki's self-revolving smoke-prevention apparatus are manufactured by the Yamazaki Yoshimatsu Stores at Shimo Dori, Awaza, Osaka. These ventilators are the leading ventilators.

The Tamai Glass Manufacturing Co. at Shi-Kita Machi, Higashinariku, Osaka supplies frosted glass. The Company has supplied materials for the illumination of Shinsaibashi-Suji, the most prosperous quarter of the city.

The household furniture in pure Japanese style made by the Kato Genshichi firm at Kozu machi, Osaka, is to be recommended.

Plan-making and building is undertaken by the Morimoto Architectural Co. at Sanbancho, Kozu, Osaka. The Taiyosha Publishing Co. at Itchome, Nagahoribashi-suji, Minami, Osaka, exclusively publishes books on architecture.

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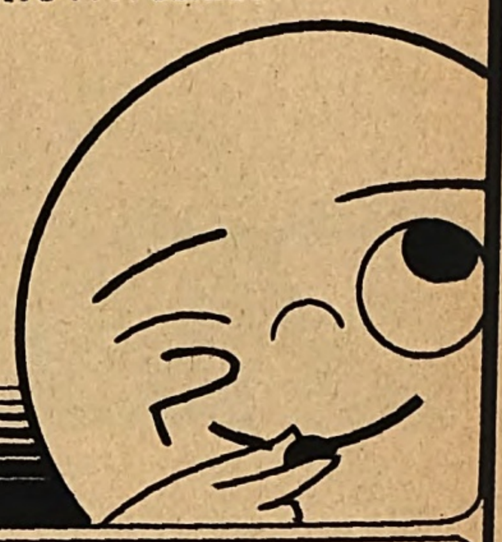

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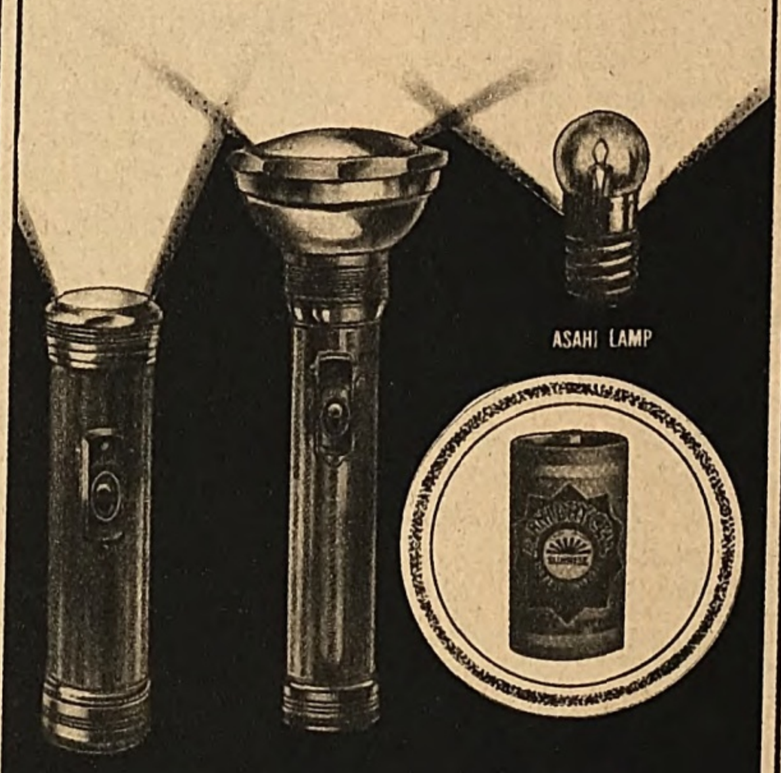

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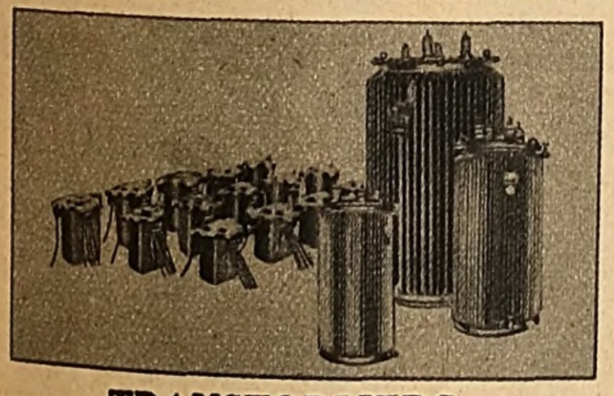

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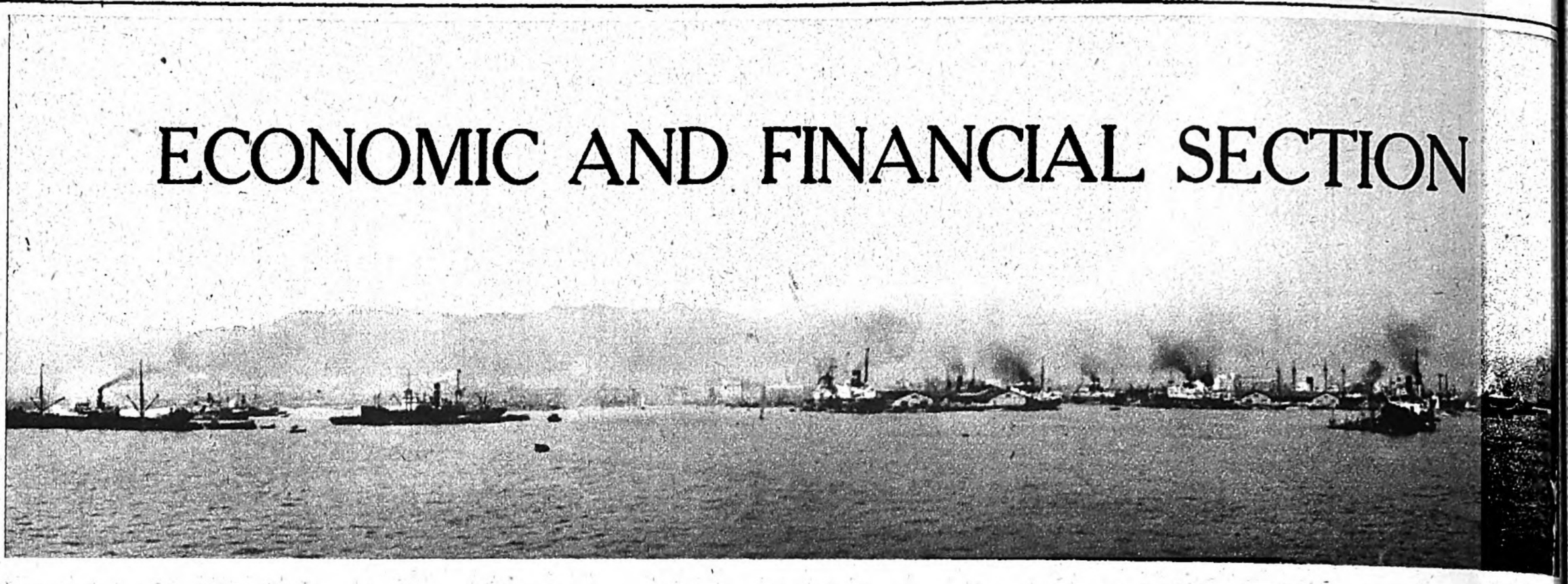

ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL SECTION

JAPAN'S OVERSEAS TRADE

A General Survey

FOR 1928 AND THE FIRST HALF OF 1929

THE total value of exports from Japan proper and Saghalien in 1928 was ¥1,971,955,000 and of the imports ¥2,196,314,000, with an excess of imports of ¥224,359,000. If Korea and Formosa had been taken into account, the total for exports would have amounted to ¥2,038,000,000 and of imports to ¥2,372,799,000, the excess of imports swelling up to ¥334,799,000. The following table gives a comparison of foreign trade for 1926, 1927 and 1928 :

Exports

	1928	1927	1926
Japan proper and Saghalien	1,971,955	1,992,317	2,044,727
Korea	32,149	28,133	24,779
Formosa	33,895	44,597	49,323
Total	2,038,000	2,065,048	2,118,830
Imports			
Japan proper and Saghalien	2,196,314	2,179,153	2,377,484
Korea	118,151	113,943	123,933
Formosa	58,334	65,561	62,008
Total	2,372,799	2,358,658	2,563,426
Excess of Imports	334,799	293,609	444,596

(All figures in thousands of yen)

In 1928 the excess of imports showed an increase of ¥41,000,000 notwithstanding the fact that in 1927 it had shown a decrease as ¥150,000,000. This unfavourable turn in the foreign trade was due to a decrease of exports amounting to ¥27,000,000 and an increase of imports amounting to ¥14,000,000. In more detail, the exports from Japan proper and Saghalien in 1928 decreased by ¥20,000,000,while the imports increased by ¥17,000,000, as compared with the previous year, and with these adverse conditions for the foreign trade coming together, the excess of imports increased by ¥37,000,000. The foreign trade of Korea, though both the exports and the imports increased by about ¥4,000,000, resulted in an increase of ¥190,000 in over-importation. The foreign trade of Formosa also resulted in an increase of over-importation, the amount being ¥3,500,000, owing to a decrease of the exports by ¥10,000,000, though the imports also decreased by ¥7,000,000. Now these increases in over-importation being taken into account, the total shows an increase as ¥40,000,000.

For this adverse condition of foreign trade, the following changes in the staple export and import goods are generally responsible. Among the staple export goods, those whose value gained against the previous year were flour by ¥10,000,000 and refined sugar by about ¥9,500,000 and those whose value fell conspicuously were cotton textiles by ¥30,000,000, cotton yarns by ¥13,000,000 and raw silk by ¥8,500,000. These decreases in the value of the export goods, overcoming the increases naturally caused a decrease in total exports of about ¥27,000,000 and brought about the increase in the excess of imports. Among the staple import goods, those whose value increased as against the previous year were steel by ¥14,000,000, wheat by ¥14,000,000 and wool by ¥10,000,000, and those whose value dropped drastically were raw cotton by ¥74,000,000 and rice by ¥45,000,000. Besides the increases mentioned above there were many others whose value increased as against the previous year and they were by far greater in number than the increases in the value of the import goods and, overcoming the decreases, formed another reason for the increase of over-importation for 1928.

In these changes in the foreign trade of Japan for 1928 there are two factors which need close attention ; one is the conspicuous decrease in the importation of raw cotton and the other the derease in the exportation of cotton cloth. The former was due to many reasons, but the latter, though it is generally understood to have been caused by the prolonged boycott of Japanese goods by China, was found, after close examination, to be the consequence of a marked drop in exportation to British India, the Dutch East Indies, and Hongkong. Therefore we came to the conclusion that the drop in the exportation of cotton cloth was due, not mainly to the Chinese boycott in China, as is generally believed, but to the boycott of Chinese middlemen in India and the South Sea Islands.

FOREIGN TRADE WITH EACH CONTINENT

The foreign trade of Japan in 1927 and 1928 with the principal countries in each continent was as follows :

	1928 Exports	1928 Imports	1927 Exports	1927 Imports
Asia	834,934	903,144	844,534	872,910
China	373,141	234,547	334,183	226,094
Kwantung Province	110,190	150,439	91,270	132,447
Hongkong	56,204	1,123	66,528	1,598
British India	146,006	285,470	167,580	270,592
British Straits Settlement	20,449	37,404	36,657	35,873
Dutch Indies	73,414	112,038	82,581	103,775
French Indo-China	4,112	20,355	5,873	33,179
Asiatic Russia	11,197	21,916	7,776	24,526
Philippines	29,054	16,342	32,834	17,841
Siam	5,763	4,438	8,101	4,781
Other Countries	5,399	19,067	11,146	22,260
Europe	160,345	403,703	147,892	387,738
Great Britain	58,904	164,840	64,829	153,271
France	63,408	24,006	54,045	27,309
Germany	12,581	133,533	10,612	131,390
Belgium	1,869	14,497	2,205	14,316
Italy	6,190	9,334	3,865	6,827
Switzerland	1,279	19,640	1,416	18,085
Austria	104	1,724	273	2,857
Sweden	812	10,767	497	10,889
Norway	717	4,538	59	4,214
Russia	1,197	2,141	869	1,606
Other Countries	13,279	18,679	9,117	17,458
North America	858,598	693,620	866,748	739,972
United States	826,141	625,503	833,804	673,685
Canada	27,047	66,498	27,401	55,669
Mexico	1,312	234	1,265	19
Other Countries	4,097	1,384	4,276	10,597
South America	21,130	—	20,886	—
Chile	1,884	6,266	2,063	7,868
Argentine	6,970	4,673	9,528	2,003
Brazil	1,982	239	1,250	294
Other Countries	10,293	1,019	8,042	311
Other Continents	96,946	168,805	112,255	163,626
Egypt	23,714	20,340	29,006	24,633
Australia	43,000	130,494	50,566	122,840
New Zealand	3,097	796	3,347	420
Hawaii	6,466	175	6,894	104
Other Countries	20,667	16,999	22,443	15,628
Others	—	14,842	—	4,425
Grand Total	1,971,955	2,196,314	1,992,317	2,179,153

(Korea and Formosa are excluded and all figures are in thousands of yen)

In the above table, attention is called to the trade with Russia. A few years ago neither the exports nor the imports were worthy of mention, but in 1927 and 1928 there were phenomenal increases. In 1928 the exports jumped up to ¥1,200,000 and the imports to ¥2,000,000. Another thing worthy of attention is the trade with Canada and Italy and with Germany and Switzerland. In the former the exports from Japan to these countries show no great change, while their imports into Japan tend to increase rapidly. In the latter case the imports to Japan show no great change, while the exports from Japan follow an upward trend.

FOREIGN TRADE ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT GOODS

The value of the staple goods exported in 1928, with a comparison with 1927, follows :

Japan Proper and Saghalien

Exports

	1928	1927
Raw Silk	732,697	742,265
Cotton Yarns	25,894	38,794
Habutae	33,039	38,149
Cotton Towels	3,395	3,396
Tea	11,848	10,896
Refined Sugar	38,414	28,917
Waste & Floss Silk	12,547	11,830
Coal	24,513	25,506
Knitted Goods	33,301	28,057
Copper	2,505	2,237
Plaites for Hat Making	4,717	8,459
Matches	5,117	8,156
Cotton Tissues	352,217	383,836
Woollen Tissues	3,340	2,663
Pottery	34,642	30,491
Aquatic Products	17,375	20,145
Silk Tissues	134,059	139,615
Paper	25,672	19,263
Imports		
Raw Cotton	549,941	624,630
Wool	111,856	101,676
Rice & Paddy	33,672	78,908
Sugar	64,958	75,804
Oil-Cake	86,828	98,979
Iron (Lumps, Ingots, Blooms, Billets, Slabs)	33,190	27,965
Iron (Bars, Rods, Plates, Sheets, Wires, Pipes, Tires)	95,180	88,553
Wheat	67,787	53,973
Beans & Peas	67,857	52,910
Sulphate of Ammonium	36,303	32,750
Coal	36,975	35,453
Woollen Tissue	31,213	34,696
Woollen & Worsted Yarns	32,107	43,553
Wood	111,008	103,778
Paper	13,727	15,276
Machinery	92,205	78,611

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Korea

Exports

	1928	1927
Sugar	4,897	3,493
Wood	3,630	1,941
Carrots	1,719	2,032
Cotton Textiles & Yarns	984	943
Leather	945	995
Others	19,974	19,729

Imports

Millet	25,486	31,649
Raw Silk	11,056	11,303
Bean Cake	7,539	9,039
Wood	7,052	6,771
Rice & Unhulled Rice	7,925	1,149
Coal	6,568	7,106
Sugar	6,023	4,278
Chinese Hemp Cloth	5,780	5,500
Others	40,722	37,148

Formosa

Exports

Drinks, Food & Tobacco	15,181	23,596
Medicine, Chemicals, Tea, & Explosives	5,905	4,600
Minerals	4,646	7,275
Cloth & Cloth Goods	4,237	4,502
Others	3,926	4,624

Imports

Cereals, Flour & Seeds	10,595	19,863
Cloth & Cloth Goods	3,468	3,388
Drinks & Tobacco	2,955	5,575
Oil, Greese & Paraffin	2,807	2,499
Medicine, Chemicals, Tea & Explosives	2,223	2,535
Miscellaneous	30,057	26,794
Others	6,129	4,907

(All figures in thousands of yen)

INVISIBLE EXPORTS AND IMPORTS

The invisible exports and imports 1928 have not yet been published the following table gives the figures 1927 and their comparison with preceding year:

Credit Account

	1927	1926
Ordinary Receipts		
Interest & Dividends on Foreign Bonds	12,848	13,196
Income from Overseas Investments & Service	120,989	122,125
Shipping Income	199,470	192,260
Insurance Income	96,441	92,177
Foreigners' Consumption in Japan	50,778	47,873
Government Income		
Made Overseas	27,492	24,029
Others	16,386	17,576
Total	524,404	509,236

	1927	1928
Extraordinary Receipts		
Investments in Japan made by Foreigners	153,589	176,772
Collections of Overseas Investments	45,546	87,541
Total	199,135	264,313
Grand Total	723,539	773,549

Debit Account

Ordinary Payments		
Interest paid to Foreigners	103,846	103,985
Shipping Payments	67,005	67,201
Insurance	95,890	90,014
Overseas Consumption	27,918	25,195
Government Payments excluding Interest on Bonds	69,488	66,861
Others	11,129	15,966
Total	375,276	369,222
Extraordinary Payments		
Foreigners' Collection of Investments in Japan	180,876	153,640
Overseas Investments	105,931	73,742
Total	286,807	227,382
Grand Total	662,083	596,604
Excess of Receipts or Payments		
Excess of Ordinary Receipts	149,128	140,014
Excess of Extraordinary Receipts	—	36,931
Excess of Extraordinary Payments	—	87,672
Total Excess of Receipts	61,456	176,945

(All figures in thousands of yen)

According to the above table, the invisible receipts other than by foreign trade for 1927 is ¥61,156,000, and this being deducted from ¥293,609,000, the excess of imports for 1927 (see the first table), the net over-importation for that year is reduced to ¥232,153,000.

The invisible receipts, though they amounted to ¥420,000,000 in 1924, thereafter showed remarkable diminution and in 1927 were only ¥60,000,000. For 1928 they are supposed to be ¥300,000,000, the ordinary receipts being ¥150,000,000, the extraordinary ¥75,000,000 (this being the amount of bonds issued overseas by private companies) and other invisible receipts ¥80,000,000 (Note—The above figures are according to an unofficial estimation, the authorized figures not being obtainable at the present writing). With these invisible receipts the excess of imports for 1928 will be covered for the most part and the adverse condition of Japan's foreign trade will be mitigated to a great extent.

FOREIGN TRADE FOR THE FIRST HALF OF 1929

	Exports	Imports
January	181,669	240,826
February	147,352	237,478
March	167,483	211,106
April	176,523	213,370
May	183,993	219,937
June	159,519	166,398
Total	1,016,541	1,289,117
Excess of Imports		272,576

(Korea and Formosa are excluded and all figures are in thousands of yen.)

The excess of imports for the first half of 1929 has shown an increase of about ¥36,000,000, for in 1923 it was ¥236,000,000. This unfavourable turn of foreign trade was due to an increase in the importation of raw cotton by ¥73,000,000 and of steel by ¥13,000,000. Though in the exports, raw silk increased by ¥20,000,000 and cotton yarns by ¥27,000,000, the increases in the imports were too large to be covered by these increases in the exports and caused the above increase in over-importation. This substantial increase in the importation of raw cotton, however, was to cover a lack of stock induced by the withholding of orders in the latter half of 1928.

Overseas Trade Policy

THE overseas trade policy of any country is concerned with shipping the greatest possible amount of exports and taking the smallest possible amount of imports. And for that purpose every country's government is found in an attempt to hold the leadership in its foreign trade from the standpoint of national economy and keep it from getting into wrong channels and not to leave it entirely in the hands of private traders. In this connection the tariff problem is most important and common to all countries.

It is hard to say whether the Japanese tariff barrier is high or low. But, apart from this question, the Japanese tariff system covers now nearly every import with the exception of a very limited number of raw materials. This exemplifies the safeguarding of recent successive governments, by which they have committed the blunder of attaching too much importance to producers, and the backwardness of industries in this country. Above all, the last Seiyukai Government, under the premiership of General Tanaka, was all for a safeguarding policy. This was clearly shown in the raising of duties on lumber by the last Diet this year, though the tariff, including lumber duties, had been brought up fairly high in 1926. For example the duties were raised in 1929 from ¥3.10 (per cubic meter) to between ¥5.40 and ¥9.85 on the Japanese cypress and cedar; and a rate of ¥1.10 was then newly established on fir, spruce, pine and larch, and from ¥2.10 to ¥4.55 on douglas fir. Such a raising of the tariff was pushed through under the name of protection for home forests in spite of the general opposition raised in this country. As regards a reduction of the rate on some luxuries, which was also carried out by the Tanaka Government, one must understand that it was only a revision of a schedule hitherto improperly high.

The present Minseito Government, under Premier Hamaguchi, has lately pronounced its adherence to free trade theoretically; but the suspicion is easily evoked whether it will really live up to this pronouncement, when one thinks of the actual accomplishments of this party. Another feature of the Minseito policy is that 10 staple export unions and 85 unions of producers of staple articles of export have been organized under government protection so as to furnish facilities for co-operation between government and private trade in the improvement of industries.

Next should be mentioned the encouragement of participation in sample fairs. In this country the utilization of sample fairs is not very popular, and the government has granted an annual subsidy of ¥80,000 to stimulate participation in them.

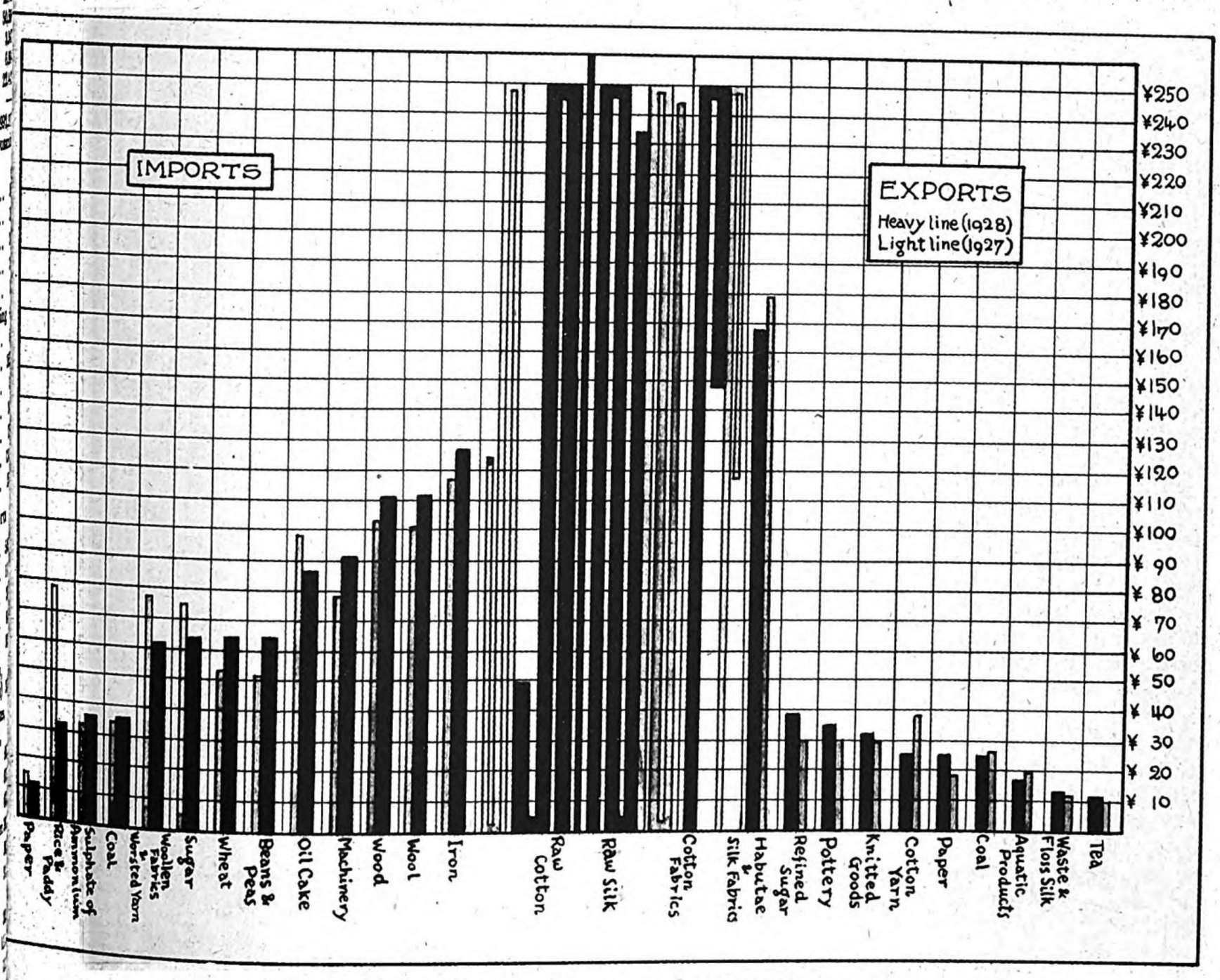
Commercial commissioners of the Department of Commerce and Industry are now stationed in the following places abroad to supply Japanese traders with fresh information on economic conditions:

Tientsin, Hankow, Canton, Saigon, Manila, Sydney, Karachi, Milano, Vladivostok, Toronto, New Orleans, Chicago, Mexico City, Lima, Rio de Janeiro, Chungking, Rangoon, Havana, Vancouver, Teheran, Wellington, Lyon, Wien, Prague, Bankok.

The Department of Foreign Affairs has its commercial attaches for practically the same purpose in the following places:

London, Shanghai, Berlin, New York, Moscow, Constantinople, Bombay, Batavia.

Last of all, the encouragement of the transit trade is to be referred to. Of all invisible receipts from abroad, the earnings of traders who act as middlemen for foreign merchants, and receipts on freights and insurance premiums, etc. are the most significant. It has been worked out that in 1927 the value of the business done by those engaged in the transit trade reached ¥570,000;000 and made up a total of ¥630,000,000 when combined with ¥56,000,000 from freights and insurance premiums. The major companies in this business are the Mitsui Bussan, the Mitsubishi Shoji, the Toyo Menka, the Gosho, and the Senda Shokai, and some one million yen has been invested abroad by them. The Japanese government is considering a measure to tender more active assistance to them.



Principal Imports and Exports of Japan. For Value, ,000,000 is Omitted.

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Recent Phases of Japan's Import and Export Trade

IMPORT TRADE

IN this article we shall make a general survey of the import and cxport trade of Japan since 1914 when the world war broke out. In our study of the import trade, six kinds of commodities, which constitute the bulk of the imported goods, are selected for discussion. The percentage of the six kinds of commodities to the total amount of the imports is shown in Table A.

Raw Cotton

The import of raw cotton since 1914 has been as follows :

Year	Quantity (piculs)	Value (yen)
1928	9,765,173	549,941,000
1927	12,799,855	624,630,000
1923	8,846,201	513,172,000
1919	7,919,398	667,866,000
1914	6,200,791	218,974,000

Cotton occupies as important a position in the import trade of Japan as raw silk does in the export trade. It is imported during the first half of the year, and that is why the foreign trade of Japan shows an excess of imports during the first six months. Cotton is the most important material used in clothing by the Japanese nation, but there is very little of it produced in Japan. And naturally the spinning industry of Japan relies exclusively upon foreign cotton. During the world war the spinning industry of Japan made a marked development, with the result that the import of raw cotton made up thirty per cent. of the total import. Owing to the progress of the spinning industry, the production of coarse counts is gradually giving place to the production of finer counts. Thus Indian cotton, which formally made up more than half of the total import of raw cotton, is being imported in less quantities on account of its coarse quality and the import of American cotton of finer quality has increased recently, as shown in Table B.

This raw cotton is manufactured into cotton yarns, cotton cloth, knit goods, etc. for export. The export of these goods is next to raw silk in amount, so that the manufacture of cotton goods is one of the key industries of Japan.

Iron

Steel is imported from Germany, Great Britain, America, and Belgium, of which that from the continent makes up the greater part and dominates market prices. The iron industry in Japan was the greatest victim of the post-bellum panic. Many iron companies which had been established during the war through the stimulus of the headlong rises in the prices of iron, suffered from the reactionary depression of iron prices after the war. In 1927 only sixty or sixty-five per cent. of the demand at home could be manufactured by the Japanese iron companies, and of this total output, over half was manufactured by the Government's Yawata Iron Works. The following table shows the import of iron :

Iron (lumps, ingots, blooms, billets and slabs)

Year	(piculs)	(yen)
1928	11,049,000	33,190,000
1927	9,435,000	27,965,000
1923	6,107,000	19,100,000
1919	4,968,000	57,945,000
1914	3,001,000	8,046,000

Iron (bars, rods, plates, sheets, wire, pipes, and tubes)

Year	(piculs)	(yen)
1928	12,546,000	95,180,000
1927	11,680,000	85,553,000
1923	10,558,000	101,435,000
1919	9,614,000	169,852,000
1914	5,821,000	31,096,000

Wool

The import of wool since 1914 has been as follows :

Year	(piculs)	(yen)
1928	880,000	111,856,000
1927	789,000	101,676,000
1923	517,000	80,011,000
1919	417,000	61,304,000
1914	156,000	14,783,000

The climate and geography of Japan are not fit for the breeding of sheep, so the output of wool is quite insignificant, and the greatest portion of the demand at home is met by the import of wool. The woollen manufacturing industry of Japan has made a great development since the world war, accompanied by a corresponding increase of the import of wool as shown in the above table. Owing to the post-bellum economic depression, the import of wool was temporarily decreased, but since 1922 it again has shown a tendency to gradually increase. In 1926 the government imposed a tariff duty on tops, and raised the tariff on woollen yarns and woollen goods. Under this tariff protection, the woollen industry of Japan has further developed. Hitherto the imported wool has chiefly consisted of tops, but at present the bulk of the import is raw wool.

Wood

The import of wood since 1914 has been as follows :

Year	(yen)
1928	111,008,000
1927	103,773,000
1923	89,521,000
1919	10,889,000
1914	1,490,000

The reserve of trees in Japan is abundant, but on account of the precipitous nature of the land on which they are grown, a great amount of labour is required for transportation, and moreover too great felling of trees is inadmissible, thus necessitating the import of no small amount of foreign wood in order to meet the home demand. American wood makes up the greater part of the imported wood, and the demand for it is ever increasing on account of its cheapness. The reconstruction of Tokyo after the earthquake of 1923 abruptly increased the demand for American wood, to such an extent that its import at one time amounted to over one hundred million yen. The raising of the tariff duties on wood this year, with the completion of the reconstuction work in Tokyo, decreased the import of wood. With the reduction of price of Japanese wood and wood from the North, the margin of prices between American and Japanese wood has been narrowed down to a certain extent. American pine is the principal imported wood. Next come fir, cedar, paulownia, etc. Teak from Burma is also imported to a value of about three million yen.

Machinery

The development of industry in Japan during the world war increased the demand for machinery to such an extent that its importation reached one hundred million yen. Since 1925, however, the import has fallen off considerably, as shown in the following table :

Year	(yen)
1928	92,205,000
1927	78,611,000
1923	102,241,000
1919	89,221.000
1914	24,494,000

Sugar

The import of sugar since 1914 has been as follows :

Year	(piculs)	(yen)
1928	6,350,000	64,958,000
1927	7,022,000	75,804,000
1923	5,006,000	52,632,000
1919	4,548,000	58,183,000
1914	3,309,000	21,678,000

The advance in the nation's living standard and the increase of population caused the development of the confectionery industry, which in turn has increased the demand for sugar. According to the above table, Java sugar heads the list of the sugars imported, followed by Manila and Cuba sugar. The sugar refining industry in Japan, and especially in Formosa, is now able to supply the greater part of the refined sugar consumed in Japan. Formosa is climatically well suited to the raising of sugar and the industry has been carried out from old in the island, but since it passed into the hands of Japan, it has made remarkable progress. With improvements in mill methods, the output of sugar in the island has been increased to a considerable extent. Refined sugar is one of the most important export commodities, the amout annually leaving the country exceeding thirty million yen. Thus the import of refined sugar has been decreasing since 1926, when it amounted to 7,568,000 piculs, or 83,000,000 yen in value.

Wheat

The import of wheat is gradually increasing, owing to increased demand at home, as shown in the following table:

Year	(piculs)	(yen)
1928	10,957,000	67,787,000
1927	7,774,000	53,929,000
1923	7,382,000	47,433,000
1919	4,298,000	38,530,000
1914	1,962,000	8,488,000

The yield of wheat in Japan amounts to five or six million koku, while the demand for wheat reaches about ten million koku, and the deficit is made good by the importation of foreign wheat. Seventy per cent. of the imported wheat is consumed in wheat flour, the remaining thirty per cent. being used for Japanese soy, seeds, and food. Since the world war the flour milling industry has made great progress, and the export is yearly increasing, thus causing an increase in the demand for wheat. Under the circumstances, it is reasonable to suppose that the import of foreign wheat will continue at the present rate.

Other Important Commodities

Other important imported commodities are given in Table C.

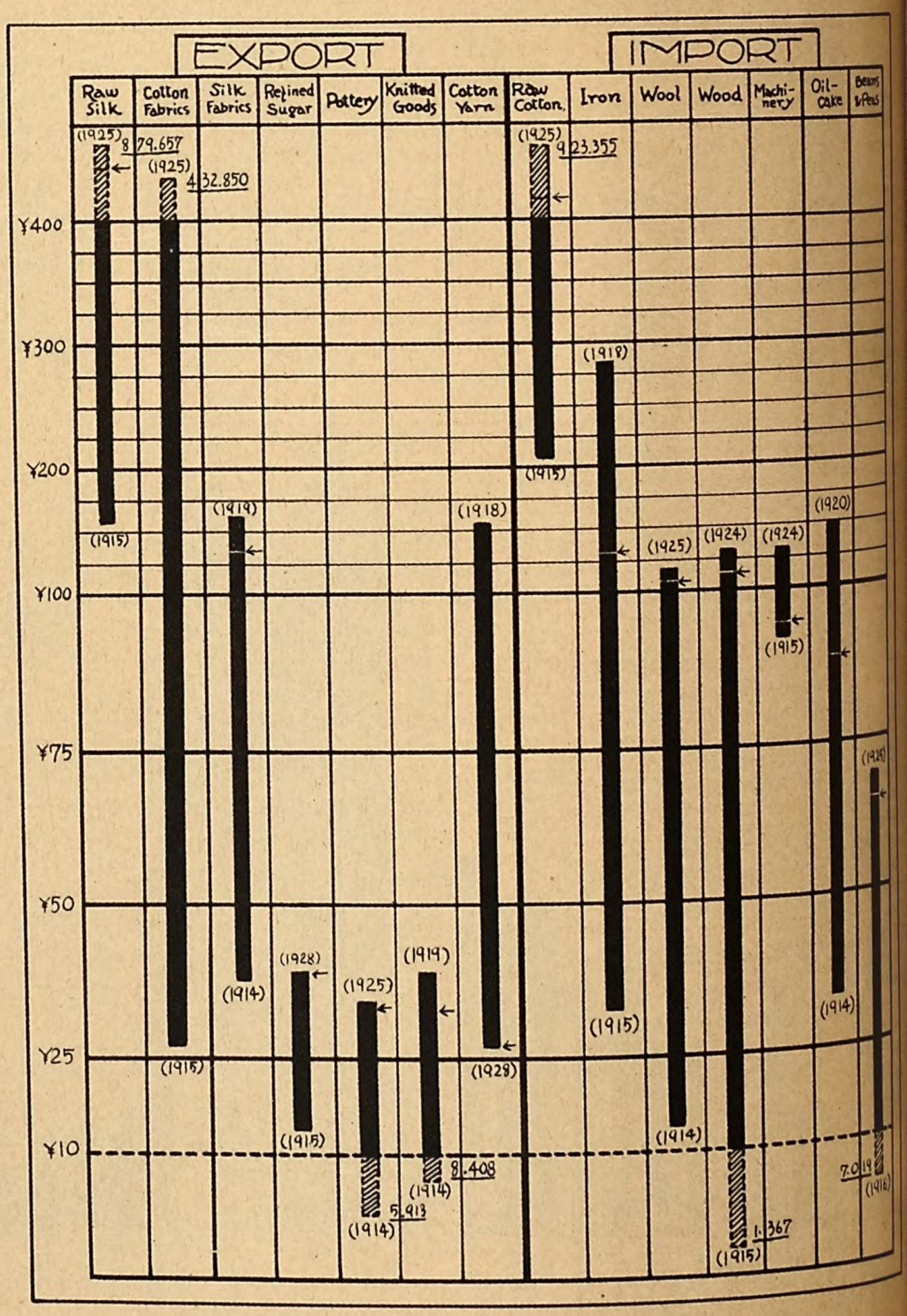

Table Showing Smallest and Greatest Amounts of Principal Commodities Imported and Exported by Japan Proper Since the Year 1914. (Figures in parentheses represent years. Arrows point to amounts for 1928. ,000,000 omitted, except in case of figures in chart, from which ,000 is omitted.)

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EXPORT TRADE

The effects of the great war upon Japanese foreign trade are more than surprising. Raw silk and raw cotton, the two most outstanding items in the annual trade table, have retained, since the pre-war period, their places respectively in the export and import trades. They are still in a position, as they were before the war, to decide the trade balance either favourably or otherwise for this country. Thus it has long been the rule that Japan's trade shows an excess of imports over exports in the first half of the year and the reverse in the second half, because the two halves represent respectively the periods for the arrival of raw cotton imports and the shipment of raw silk. Meanwhile the other staple exports and imports have shown in trade value far-reaching changes since the war. The present article treats of these post-bellum changes in the more important exports exclusively. The figures in Table D are in thousands of yen.

Raw Silk

It is plain that raw silk exports affect most the year's trade balance, constituting 40% in value of the total exports. A decrease of ¥240,900,000 for raw silk in 1920 as against the preceding year, as shown in the above table, is explainable by the fact that exports to the United States were much reduced in that year while those to Europe showed little change. It was partly because the United States took overshipments of Japanese raw silk in the preceding year, a part of which still remained in storage in 1920, and partly because the effects of a retrenchment policy pursued since the war by the United States government took shape in that year. The prices of commodities fell off, home markets began to experience a slump period, and buying offers for raw silk decreased. On the contrary, European silk weavers, caught by a lack of raw silk materials for their manufacture, began to look to Japan for the filling of the deficiency. At first, however, American buyers offered better quotation for Japanese raw silk than the Europeans, who on this account lost business to some degree. Later raw silk prices came to show a depreciation after every transaction, and European buyers were enabled to get Japanese silk in abundance at their price offers.

The destruction of the port of Yokohama in the 1923 earthquake catastrophe enabled Kobe to materially increase her raw silk shipments. It is thus remarkable to find that the shipments made by the two ports were in 1927 80% for Yokohama and 20% for Kobe. Moreover, as such necessary facilities as the examining station, means of finance, and warehouses have been completed in Kobe, it is safe to say that a double-port system for raw silk shipment has been definitely established in this country. On the other hand, an increase was effected in the demand for Japanese raw silk from foreign countries, where the respective governments raised the tariff on silk manufactures to safeguard their own silk manufacturing industry. This has been most conspicuous in the United States, which has been taking more Japanese silk every year to satisfy the demand in her great weaving industry. In 1925 exports of raw silk from Japan were registered in total at ¥879,000,000, and it is due to the depreciation in quotation that the exports in the following years increased in volume but decreased in value.

Cotton Fabrics

Exports of cotton fabrics for the last three years are given in thousands of yen as follows :

	1928	1927	1926
Striped fabrics	18,105	19,382	21,560
Plain fabrics ..	8,595	7,037	11,035
Coloured fabrics	800	879	1,131
Figured fabrics	20,223	41,310	35,961
"Kokura" fabrics	3,434	5,566	3,574
Cotton crepe ..	6,831	8,343	11,544
Cotton flannel	13,664	19,338	18,608
Raw calico	69,809	64,785	65,593
Raw sheetings	25,532	40,875	52,383
Bleached calico	21,580	16,270	16,610
Printed fabrics	12,740	15,826	18,408
T-cloths	8,961	13,205	15,654
Canvas cloths..	1,558	1,893	1,899
Cotton satin ..	61,042	56,429	66,454
Cotton poplin	2,820	4,144	4,640

Japan's cotton industry depends on foreign materials, but has advanced materially. As a result cotton fabrics have come to be placed next to raw silk among Japan's staple products. There was a period of depression after the war in the cotton industry, which was then affected adversely by the loosening of world economy and the advent of rival foreign products. But when that period had ended, it went on progressing headlong. In 1925 a record was reached for cotton exports, which amounted to ¥432,000,000 in value. Meanwhile the improvement of the same industry in China and India has been remarkable, and has caused a decrease in the export of Japanese cotton cloths of lower grades. On the contrary those of fine fibres have been on the increase. Though of late the export trade in cotton fabrics has been inactive due to the civil disturbances in China, exports of cotton satin, striped fabrics, cotton flannel, bleached calico and printed fabrics have made substantial improvements. In China there is a growing demand for cotton crepe in place of silk crepe. Thus the exports of this fabric were in 1927 twenty-six times the exports for 1921, which amounted in value to ¥2,000,000

Silk Fabrics

(In thousands of yen)

	1928	1927	1926
Habutae	33,039	38,149	36,671
Satin.....	6,214	7,070	8,750
Taffeta & poplin	4,010	1,176	1,032
Pongee.....	12,676	14,258	19,416
Fuji silk	35,683	44,469	38,170
Crepe	35,713	32,367	27,466

Silk weaving is as old as the production of raw silk in Japan. But the exports of silk fabrics are not greater than those of raw silk and cotton fabrics. The industry has lately been reorganized from a handicraft to a factory industry, with mass production. This, aided by technical improvements corresponding to changing fashions abroad, has been bringing up the value of the exports of silk fabrics to a higher level. Taking the figures for prominent years, these exports were ¥30,000,000 for 1912, as high as ¥60,000,000 during the war years, and at the unprecedentedly high level of ¥117,000,000 respectively for 1919 and 1920. It was, however, because of war destruction, the revision of the American tariff in 1922 and the growing popularity of rayon that the silk trade met with a brief period of inactivity afterwards. But normal trade has been restored since 1924.

The outstanding recent feature of this trade is that *habutae* and Kai silk, to which the Japanese silk fabric trade was almost exclusively confined before the war, have gradually been displaced by pongee, Fuji silk and crepe.

Cotton Yarns

There are several reasons for the continuing decrease in the export of cotton yarns in recent years. The more important of these are : a general post-bellum slump in international trade ; the remarkable rise of the cotton industry in China ; the encroaching on Eastern markets for Japanese goods of European rivals ; and the raising of the tariff by the Indian government. In this connection the following figures are given for reference :

	1928	1927	1926
Below 20 counts	7,987	5,651	15,127
Above 20 counts	17,907	33,142	55,580

(In thousands of yen)

But at the same time it is seen from the above table that yarns of finer fibers are more and more in demand abroad.

Pottery

Displaying a record of more than ¥30,000,000 as early as 1920, pottery also assumes a high place in Japan's export trade. Japanese exports in this line consist mainly of porcelain and in part of hard chinawares. Foreign demand for Japanese pottery was formerly in large measure restricted to decorative wares headed by vases and curios with peculiar Japanese characteristics. But nowadays wares for ordinary use are a great deal more in demand than these, having an extensive outlet throughout the world.

Knitted Goods

The main Japanese knitted goods are shown as follows, with their respective export values for the last three years :

(In thousands of yen)

	1928	1927	1926
Underwear	27,378	25,093	23,076
Gloves	467	507	505
Socks & stockings	4,817	2,949	2,323
Short drawers	637	506	103
Total	33,301	29,057	26,008

Though knitted goods for export increased greatly during the war period, unfavourable conditions followed immediately. There was the world-wide business crisis after the war, the active marketing of European rival goods, the bad name which became attached to them through the export of inferior goods in war-time, and the advance in production of rival goods in China. But it is gratifying that the trade has been on the increase since 1924.

Refined Sugar

Refined sugar production is increasing in volume year by year under the protection of the government in this country. The government's assistance is also discerned in improvements in species of sugar-cane and in an encouragement policy for cane plantation. But the trouble with this particular industry in Japan is want of materials, on account of which the export of refined sugar has not yet made great progress. To make good the deficiency in material, Japan imports large quantities of Dutch-Indian and Cuban cane every year.

Wheat Bran

The manufacture of wheat bran made material progress and its exports amounted to ¥13,000,000 a year during the war, while the exports fell off almost to nothing for a few years after 1919. However, brisk business being restored in 1923, the exports have recently come to surpass the war-time level and promise to advance. At present Japanese manufacturers are mostly concerned with the production of bran for export purposes on a mass production system, and their products are gaining against foreign goods in the Eastern and South Seas markets.

Tea

Tea manufacture was not favoured by the war boom, though many other important industries advanced during the period. After recording a value of more than ¥20,000,000 in 1916, the tea export trade has gradually decreased and now is nearly half what it was a decade ago. Prospects are not bright for the tea trade, because of the growing rivalry of Chinese, Indian and Ceylon tea and the wide use of coffee and cocoa as substitutes. In view of this a policy is being pursued to develop tea manufacture into a machine industry and to carry on more active advertising of Japanese tea in foreign countries.

TABLE A

	1914	1919	1924	1928
Crude food stuffs	8.7	14.0	10.0	9.5
Manufactured food stuffs	4.5	4.2	3.8	4.1
Raw materials	55.2	50.3	47.6	53.1
Partly manufactured goods.....	16.2	20.8	18.4	17.4
Fully manufactured goods	14.6	12.0	19.2	15.1
Other manufactured goods.....	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE B

Year	Indian Cotton (bales)	Indian Cotton (yen)	American Cotton (bales)	American Cotton (yen)	Egyptian Cotton (yen)
1924	1,475,084	310,911,000	602,630	204,918,000	16,425,000
1925	2,004,763	475,517,000	970,809	360,166,000	35,710,000
1926	1,917,036	327,520,000	1,153,535	317,996,000	34,469,000
1927	1,630,009	202,235,000	1,704,267	343,563,000	28,102,000
1928	1,500,403	232,241,000	1,043,699	245,925,000	21,760,000

(Note—One bale of American cotton is equal to 370 kin, of Indian cotton to 300 kin and of Egyptian cotton to 550 kin.)

TABLE C

	1928	1927	1923	1919	1914
Rice and paddy.....	4,723 piculs	9,747	4,423	11,605	5,056
(,000 omitted)	¥33,672	78,906	30,718	162,070	24,823
Oil-cake	19,010 piculs	22,126	23,831	24,592	12,401
(,000 omitted)	¥86,828	98,979	109,646	135,138	34,864
Beans and peas	10,369 piculs	8,647	8,879	4,435	3,270
(,000 omitted)	¥67,857	52,910	51,163	35,302	13,320
Sulphate of ammonia..	4,741 piculs	4,166	2,428	1,687	1,760
(,000 omitted)	¥36,303	32,750	24,950	27,435	15,145
Coal	2,734 tons	2,660	1,685	699	950
(,000 omitted)	¥36,975	35,488	24,351	18,588	6,690
Woolen and worsted yarns (,000 omitted)	¥32,107	43,552	73,855	668	4,140
Woolen tissues ..... (,000 omitted)	¥31,213	43,552	46,600	12,301	10,225
Paper ..... (,000 omitted)	¥13,727	15,276	17,152	18,386	4,886

TABLE D

	1914	1917	1920	1927	1928
Beans and peas.....	3,599	33,632	10,770	10,466	10,401
Wheat bran.....	107	13,648	362	14,260	24,718
Tea	12,710	21,756	17,113	10,896	11,848
Refined sugar.....	12,383	26,151	30,593	28,917	38,416
Aquatic products	11,560	14,189	17,343	20,145	17,373
Canned crab	1,472	4,455	4,020	14,661	18,574
Rice wine	3,150	7,228	10,253	7,167	7,536
Fish oil, including whale oil ..	2,657	3,626	3,389	7,480	8,162
Cotton yarns	78,555	108,140	152,394	38,794	25,895
Raw silk	161,797	355,155	382,716	741,228	732,697
Cotton fabrics	34,841	127,458	334,966	381,761	352,218
Knitted goods	8,408	16,719	26,157	29,057	33,301
Silk tissues.....	34,025	62,858	158,416	139,615	134,059
Coal	23,914	26,454	45,161	25,508	24,513
Pottery.....	5,914	14,474	31,452	30,491	34,642
Waste silk and floss silk	4,262	25,038	24,727	12,888	12,547
Wood	10,193	14,784	29,128	15,899	17,964
Camphor	2,780	5,304	4,965	5,638	5,448
Plaits.....	3,248	5,307	16,149	8,459	4,717
Matches	7,619	19,607	24,181	8,156	5,117
Silk handkerchiefs	2,370	4,662	8,685	5,915	5,264
Hats, caps and bonnets	4,239	13,181	6,817	9,409	12,194
Buttons.....	2,726	10,258	9,982	9,851	7,653
Paper and paper manufactures..	4,706	22,119	34,367	36,468	32,068
Cement.....	1,033	2,678	10,060	7,122	6,885
Glass and glass manufactures ..	3,926	14,160	23,239	16,631	12,941
Iron manufactures	1,169	12,950	21,071	12,059	13,683
Machinery and parts	5,260	27,744	25,146	26,953	28,975
Brushes	1,983	4,994	7,379	4,595	3,995
Toys.....	2,891	8,410	21,189	10,521	11,000

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THE KNITTING INDUSTRY IN JAPAN

The knitting industry in Japan has a history of over a century, during which it has a steadily developed, and especially since the World War has it enjoyed notable progress and expansion. The difference of conditions before and after the war lies more in the expansion of markets than in an increase of exports. This may be attributable to the fact that during the war the European countries which had exported knitted goods were deprived of their capacity to produce goods for export. Thus countries which had imported goods from these European countries had to turn to Japan to supply their needs. In this way Japan expanded her markets to South America, South Africa, Australia, Egypt, the Balkans, etc. This gave a great stimulus to the Japanese knitting industry. Up to that time Japan had exported her goods only to other Oriental countries and the South Sea Islands, so that cheap-priced goods were chiefly produced, but when she received orders from all parts of the world, she strove to produce goods of superior quality, improving her factories and equipment, and now she can turn out goods to compete with the world's best.

INDUSTRIAL GUILDS

By Shibata Zenzaburo
Governor of Osaka Prefecture

The industrial products of Osaka Prefecture amount to some ¥1,350,000,000 a year, half of which are turned out by small scale industries. These small scale industries, in which only unimproved means of production are employed, were independent of each other and under no organized administration until industrial guilds were recently introduced for the purpose of furnishing them with organization and control. At present these guilds number more than thirty int his prefecture and are engaged in the positive work of improving the system of production and sales. Their full use means great advantage for the small industrialists organized in them. But their misuse can only do harm. Therefore we, the administrators, are bound to see to it that they go forward in the right direction. For this purpose it is most important to bring about a feeling of comradeship among the members of the guilds. Next comes the importance of wise management. The combination of these two factors will without fail guarantee prosperity for the industrialists in the guilds.

Inspection of knit goods for export

Japan has a unique system of examining goods for export, in order to prevent the shipping out of goods of inferior quality, a phenomenon common in any industry during a transition period. The Knit Goods Industrial Unions have organized a Federation. The products of all factories which are not members of the Federation must be examined in the local government institution under fixed rules and regulations, and only those which pass the inspection are allowed to be exported. This system has greatly contributed to the unification and development of the industry.

The producers mark their goods with their own marks in the form of numbers, which are registered with the Federation, thus assuming responsibility for the quality of their products.

The authority of the manufacturers of the knit goods for export.

(In alphabetical order)

Registered (150) Makers Number
ESTABLISHED : 1903
FUKUSHIMA & CO., LTD.
Manufacturers of
KNITTED COTTON SHIRTS SOCKS
&
STOCKINGS SWEATERS DRAWERS
ETC.
Cable Address : "UNDERWEAR" Osaka.
General Exporters & Importers
Edobori-Minamidori Shichome, Nishi-ku, Osaka, Japan.

Export (980) Number
MANUFACTURERS & EXPORTERS
OF COTTON KNIT GOODS
KINKWA MERIYASU CO., LTD.
URAYE, OSAKA.
Cable Address : "KINKWAMERIYASU"
Codes Used : A.B.C. 5th & 6th Ed., Bentley's and Private.
Branch Factories : Ibaraki, Osaka-fu. Mikuni, Osaka.
References :
Sumitomo Bank, Semba, Osaka. Yokohama Specie Bank, Osaka.

Export (940) Number
ESTABLISHED : 1902
AMANO & CO.
MANUFACTURERS & EXPORTERS OF
ALL KINDS OF KNIT GOODS
Samples and Full Particulars Free on Application.
Letter of Credit Basis.
155 Enaricho, Konohana-ku, Osaka.
Codes Used : A.B.C. 5th Edition, Bentley's & Private.
Cable Address : "MERISAMANO"

Registered
Export (750) Number
IKEO YOKO
Shimmachi-dori 4-chome, Nishi-ku,
OSAKA.
SOCKS & STOCKINGS

Registered (2500) Maker's Number
ESTABLISHED : 1903
MARUMATSU GOSHI KAISHA
35 Ebiecho, Osaka, Japan.
CAPITAL : ¥1,000,000 President : T. SOTOMI
The Oldest & Largest Manufacturers of
HOSIERY AND UNDERWEAR
Articles :
SINGLETS, TROUSERS, COMBINATION, VESTS, BLOOMERS, BATHING SUITS, SOCKS, GLOVES, COTTON TOWELS, FLANNEL, ETC.

Registered (650) Export Number
Manufacturers & Wholesale Exporters
of Knit Goods of Every Description
Cotton Singlets, Knitted Underwear
K. ARAI & CO.
(Member of The Osaka Chamber of Commerce & Industry)
43 Bingomachi 2-chome, Higashiku, Osaka, Japan.
Samples and full Particulars Free on Application.
Cable Address : "FUKUNOKAMI" OSAKA.
Codes Used : A.B.C. 6th Edition, Bentley's, Schofield's & Private.

Registered (630) Export Number
ESTABLISHED : 1886
ISHII HOSIERY FACTORY
Proprietor : KATSUJIRO ISHII
Temmabashi-suji Gochome, Kita-ku, Osaka.
Codes Used : A.B.C. 5th & 6th Editions, Bentley's, Private.
Cable Address : "KIOHSTRICH"
Manufacturers & Wholesale Exporters
of HOSIERY of Every Description
Cotton Singlets, Knitted Underwear, Etc.
Samples and full particulars free on application.

Registered (90) Export Number
ESTABLISHED : 1890
MURAKAMI YOKO
Manufacturers & Exporters of
COTTON KNIT GOODS
Ebiecho, Nishi-Yodogawa-ku, Osaka.
Agents : MITSUI BUSSAN KAISHA, Ltd.
Our goods go to Manila, India, South America, England, and Africa.

Registered (2180) Export Number
ASARI HOSIERY FACTORY
Manufacturers & Exports
ARCH BRAND
RACE BRAND
SPEAR BRAND
COTTON KNITTED GOODS
Shinhocho Itchome, Kita-ku, Osaka.

Export (570) Number
KAMADA & BROS.
Himejimacho, Nishi-yodogawa-ku, Osaka, Japan.
Tel. Tosabori 4641
Cable Address : "KARSANDAS"
MANUFACTURERS & EXPORTERS OF
KNIT GOODS
We solicit suggestions on how to make our goods fit your needs.

Registered (1900) Export Number
Murakishi Meriyasu Kaisha
(Murakishi Knit Goods Co.)
Manufacturers & Exporters of
Cotton Knit Goods
8 Daini-Honmachi Nichome, Nishi-Yodogawa-ku,
OSAKA.
Phones : Tosabori 3087, 7451.

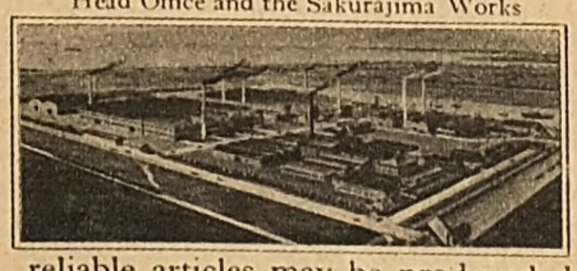
THE SUMITOMO STEEL TUBE AND COPPER WORKS, LTD.

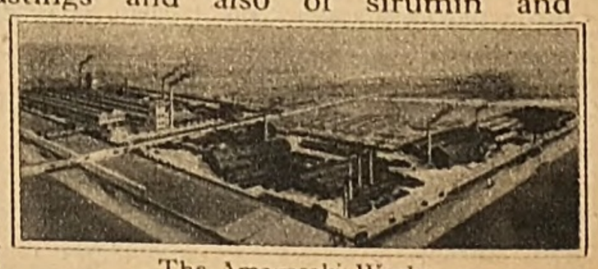
A Power in the Industrial Circles of the World.

SHIMAYA-CHO, KONOHANA-KU, OSAKA.

This company, which was honoured with a visit by H.I.M. the Emperor in June, 1929, has a history of over thirty years. It is generally recognised as a pioneer and a great authority in the industry in Japan. Why has it acquired such a reputation ? Because not only has it always paid close attention to the selection of materials, and the employment of skill, so that truly reliable articles may be produced, but it has greatly contributed to the progress and development of the industry in Japan through its constant investigation and efforts for the perfection of new and original products. Especially, the manufacture of duralumin is an invention of the company. Its perfection of high class light alloy castings and also of sirumin and electron light alloy is one of the prides of Japan.

Head Office and the Sakurajima Works





The Amagasaki Works

The list of manufactures of the company comprises copper, brass, zinc, aluminium, hot and cold finished plates, tubes and bars of light alloy, steel tubes without joints, duralumin light alloy castings, etc. These articles come in a variety of qualities, forms, and sizes and are used for vessels, railways, machinery, electric plants, architecture, etc.

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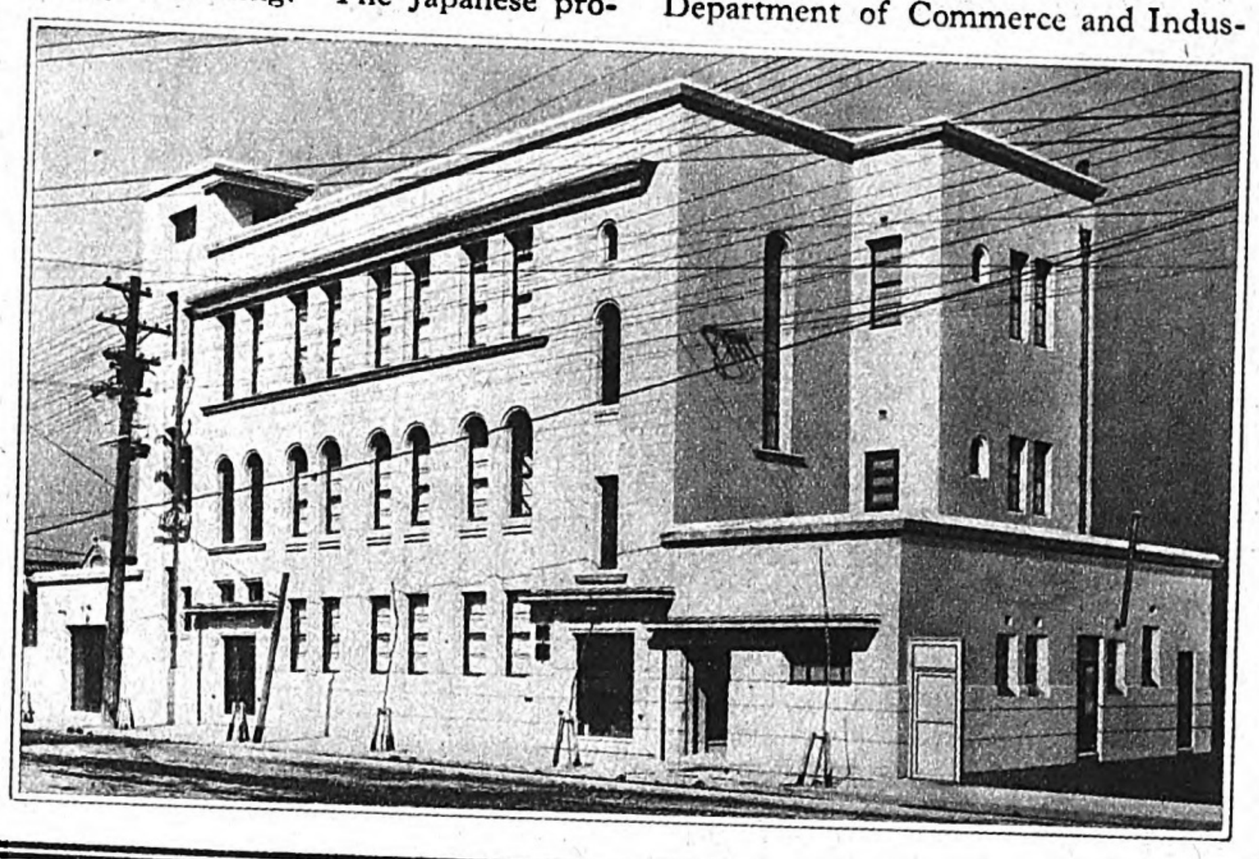
Hitherto trade marks designated by the customers alone were put on knit goods, and the trade marks of the producers were not recognised, but since October 1, 1929, the trade marks of the producers have been stamped on all goods along with those of customers. But as the stamping of the two kinds of trade marks is very inconvenient for purchasers, and it has been decided that after April 1, 1932 the trade marks of order-givers will be left out.

How to order knit goods from Japan

Orders may be given either directly to the producers or through the foreign firms in Japan. Persons with no connections in Japan had better apply to the Federation of the Japan Exporting Knit Goods Industrial Unions whose office is at No. 142, Minami Sanchome, Minami Fukushima, Konohana-ku, Osaka. Transactions are commonly made on L/C, documentary bills and credits issued by reliable banks.

The future of knit goods in Japan

Needless to say, the people of all races need knit goods for clothes, and statistics prove that the demand is yearly increasing. The Japanese producers with their experience and new knowledge are able to produce superior goods now favourably to be compared with any goods manufactured in foreign countries. Under the auspices of the Department of Commerce and Industry, trading agents were despatched in 1926 and 1927 to South America Central America, South Africa, the Balkans, Egypt, Abissinia, etc. and the demand for Japanese goods in these new markets is ever increasing.



In the Orient, the South Sea Islands, the Philippines, etc., the natives, who had not before used knit goods, now use them as the result of an advance in their mode of life, which is adding to the increase in the demand for knit goods.

The following table shows the export from Japan of knit goods during the past ten years :

1919	8,560,764 doz.	¥40,866,048
1920	6,933,279½ ,,	¥42,699,833
1921	3,149,582 ,,	¥13,233,566
1922	4,648,513½ ,,	¥19,026,002
1923	6,048,116 7/12 ,,	¥21,243,383
1924	6,385,977 1/12 ,,	¥23,894,360
1925	8,287,712½ ,,	¥32,282,175
1926	8,575,029⅛ ,,	¥26,459,240
1927	10,214,458¼ ,,	¥29,744,413
1928	11,628,607⅝ ,,	¥32,178,874

Registered (390) Export Number
NAGAI MERIYASU SEIZOSHO
Proprietor : HIDEO NAGAI
183 Juso-Nishinocho, Higashi-Yodogawa-ku, OSAKA
Manufacturers & Exporters of All Kinds of KNIT GOODS
Our Trade Marks
SUNLIGHT, AUTOMOBILE AND CARESS

Registered Maker's (9710) Number
NISHIMOTO & CO.
Manufacturers & Exporters OF
COTTON KNIT GOODS
Onocho 1-chome, Konohana-ku, Osaka.

Exclusively the Famous (5500) Made by Maker's Number
Awaiting your Enquiries !
The Owner of Patents of about 100 designs of Ladies' Underwear. Leaders in the Manufacture of the Ladies' Underwear.
Write us and we will send you samples to suit your requirements.
SAKAE KNITTING FACTORY,
12, 4-CHOME, NISHIYODOGAWA-KU, OSAKA.
P. O. Box No. 24 (Osaka Nishinoda) Osaka, Japan.

Maker's (60) Number
MAKERS & EXPORTERS OF
COTTON KNIT GOODS
Singlets, Pants, Underwear, Combinations, Sweaters, Vests, Jackets, Bloomers, Etc., Etc.
TRADE MARKS :
Onion Brand, Mercury Brand & Marca Patatas.
Notice : Samples and full particulars free on application and sales on letter of credit basis.
E. NAKAZAWA & CO.
MILL & OFFICE :
2, TOSABORI-FUNAMACHI, NISHI-KU, OSAKA.

Registered (1840) Maker's Number
KIN NISHIMURA SHOTEN
Manufacturers & Exporters of
SOCKS, STOCKINGS, GLOVES, Etc.
30 Kitanocho, Satsumabori, Nishi-ku, Osaka
Phone Nos. Shimmachi 793, 2867
FACTORY :
5-chome, Kawasaki, Honjo, Higashi-Yodogawaku, Osaka
Phone No. Kita 4567

Registered Export (610) Number
K. SUGIYAMA
MANUFACTURERS & EXPORTERS OF
KNITTED GOODS
19, Nishidotonbori Gochome, Nishi-ku, OSAKA, JAPAN

Registered Export (1330) Number
NISHIKAWA MERIYASU CO.
Manufacturers & Exporters of
KNIT GOODS LINES
68 Matsugaecho, Kita-ku, Osaka, Japan.
Phones : Horikawa 2081 & 2082

Registered (2380) Export Number
Manufacturers & Exporters of
Rayon Shirts & Pants, Cardigans, Pullovers, Underwear, Sports-goods, and All Kinds of Hosiery
OMIYA ASAKICHI SHOTEN
No. 14 3-Chome Toyosakinishi-dori Higashiyodogawa-ku, OSAKA, JAPAN
TELEPHONE No. 2126 KITA

Registered Maker's (4730) Number
MANUFACTURERS & EXPORTERS OF
KNITTED GOODS
T. UMEGAKI
63 Daini Motomachi Nichome, Nishi-Yodogawa-ku, OSAKA, JAPAN.
Our Trade Marks : Chandi Brand and Palanquin Brand

Maker's (290) Number
KNITTED GOODS
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Export (5200) Number
Ribbed Singlets
REGISTERED DESIGN. PATENT No. 25417.
J. OHTA & CO.
2-CHOME, IWAICHO, KITA-KU, OSAKA, JAPAN.

Maker's (8800) Number
Manufacturers & Exporters of Knitted Goods
N. WAKABAYASHI & CO.
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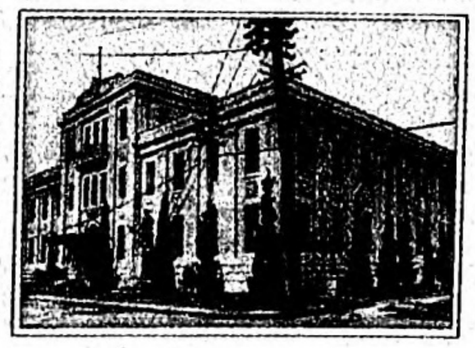
We always quote reasonable prices and supply exact goods at exact time. We should deem it a favour if you would kindly place your esteemed orders with us, choosing the above maker's number and brands.
Cable Address : "KENJITSU" OSAKA.

Osaka Chamber of Commerce and Industry

Mr. K. NABATA
President

Mr. M. Takayanagi, LL. D
Director

The Osaka Chamber of Commerce and Industry, established fifty years ago, is one of the oldest and most influential Chambers in Japan. The Chamber is a public institution, representing economic interests in Osaka, formed by the Government laws and is different in its constitution from the chambers in Great Britain and America. Its members is elected by the business men and companies, which have to pay certain amount of national taxes, once every four years. The present members consist of 50, from which one president, two vice-presidents, twelve standing committee are elected. The daily business is conducted by the secretary-general and salaried staff.



Osaka is the centre of commerce and industry in Japan, with a population of over two millions, and an annual industrial production of over one milliard yen, and more than the half of Japan's trade with the Orient and South Seas is carried out through Osaka. The Chamber's business is naturally very important and complicated. It treats about 15,000 cases of business inquiries from various quarters, both home and foreign, and economic researches are carried out in every line of business in Osaka.

Mr. H. MORI
Vice-President

Mr. Y. ATAKA
Vice-President

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Japanese Commodities for Export

Districts of Production

RAW SILK AND SILK GOODS

LIKE rice, raw silk is produced in rural districts, and more especially in the prefecture of Nagano, which is regarded as the chief silk producing district of Japan. Sericulture and reeling are almost the sole industries of the prefecture. The output of raw silk in the prefecture in 1928 reached 9,459,810 kg., of which 8,595,315 kg. were exported to the United States.

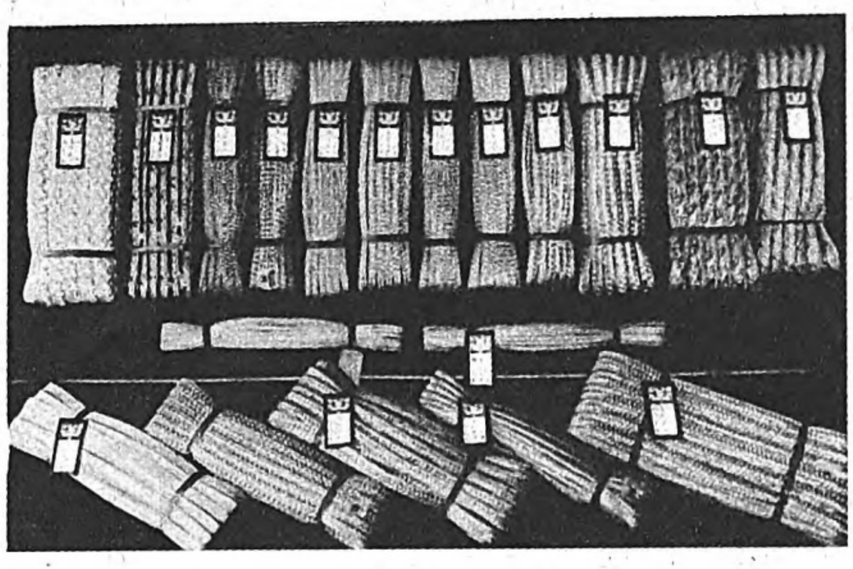
Silk goods are produced in various districts throughout the country, each of which has its own peculiar product. Kyoto, for instance, is known for Nishijin-ori. The silk cloths, and silk and cotton mixed cloths of Kyoto are yearly exported to the United States and China to the amount of several million yen. Cloth and handkerchiefs are also exported from Kyoto to the South Sea Islands and India.

Kaiki silk is produced in Yamanashi Prefecture. It is exported to Europe and America for the lining of foreign cloths, umbrella material, curtains, neckties, etc. Recently Kaiki of rayon or Kaiki woven with rayon have been produced, and they are popular on account of their cheap prices.

Habutae is produced in Fukui, Ishikawa, Fukushima and other prefectures. That produced in Fukushima is thinner and lighter than that produced in Fukui and Ishikawa; it is used by foreign consumers for ornamental purposes. Fukushima Prefecture at present manufactures silk for aeroplane parachutes which is extensively exported to Europe and America.

Habutae is produced also in Yamagata Prefecture. Uzen extra, and Tsuruoka silk goods are manufactured in the prefecture, and recently light satin has been added to the list. The habutae of Yamagata is of such kinds as hira-habutae, twilled-habutae and shima-habutae. French crepe, georgette, crepe, satin crepe, scarves, wall hangings and other products are also turned out.

Recently material for the lining of foreign clothes has been made in Niigata Prefecture. It has an Oriental character. It is exported to Great Britain, but its output is insignificant at present.



Straw Braid for Hats

ported to China, Manchuria, and the South Sea Islands. Mie Prefecture manufactures T-cloths, twill, crepe, shirtings, linen, seat coverings and Oka cotton fabrics which are known for their durability. They are exported to China, and the South Sea Islands. The fabrics of Kyoto are known for their beautiful dyeing, and for that reason are largely used for Chinese clothes. They are exported, not only to China, but to the South Sea Islands and India. Crepe is chiefly made in Niigata Prefecture. It is exported to Europe and America for women's clothes. Water-proof cloth, homespun, night dresses, and bathing suits, which are produced in Saitama Prefecture, are exported to China, the South Sea Islands, South America, etc., while pepper and salt materials, stripes, navy blue, black, Japanese duck, etc., produced in the same prefecture, are exported to China, India and Russia.

Besides the above, Nagoya, Osaka, Hiroshima and other districts produce cotton fabrics. All these materials now are made in wide widths, and narrow widths are no longer produced.

Pottery

KNIT GOODS

Knit goods are principally manufactured in Osaka, and exported to Great Britain, China, India, and the South Sea Islands. Mie Prefecture also produces knit goods. Besides underwears, stockings, and gloves, the prefecture manufactures silk goods. The knit goods produced in Nara Prefecture are exported to Manila, India, etc.

TOWELS

The chief center of towel production is Mie Prefecture. There is an annual export from the district of over 1,420,000 dozens. Towels are also produced in Saitama Prefecture.

COTTON TEXTILES

Cotton fabrics are produced in almost all districts, but those which produce on a large scale are Osaka, Nagoya, Mie, Nara, Hyogo, and Kyoto. Saitama and Niigata are also turning out a considerable quantity. Cotton fabrics produced in Nara Prefecture consist of cotton satin, Mitsuaya, seat coverings, linen, etc., which are exported to America, Germany, and Great Britain through Kobe firms, but recent indications are that they have ceased to attract the fancy of foreign consumers. Now a new matting made of rice straw is taking their place. It is especially popular in America.

POTTERY

Kyoto and Nagoya are known as producers of pottery for export. The Banko ware of Yokkaichi in Mie Prefecture is now exported abroad. The pottery of Kyoto for export consaists of flower vases, insence burners, snd alcove ornaments in Oriental taste. Seventy per cent. is exported to the United States, the remainder going to Great Britain, France, Germany, Canada and Australia.

Painting Designs on Pottery

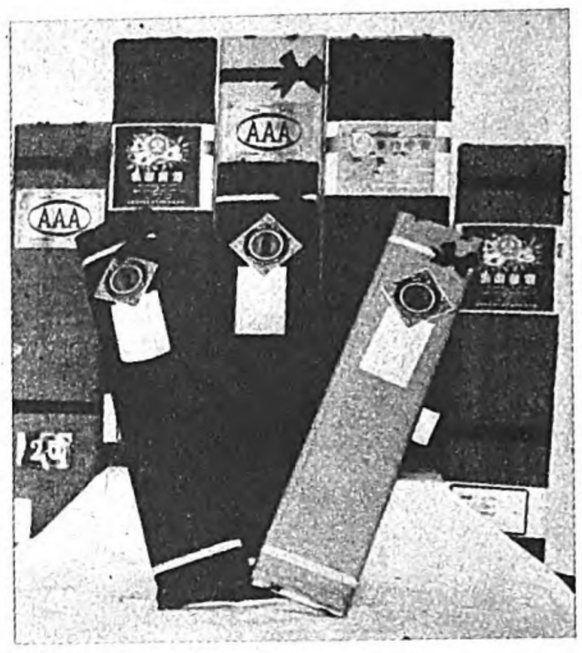
The pottery produced in Nagoya is cheap in price, and suited to the general public. It has found markets in various parts of the Orient since the world war. These export goods are, however, manufactured in about five thousand small factories of a domestic nature, while the articles produced by big factories are exported to the United States. Recently the cotton spinning factories abolished midnight work, thereby causing a surplus of electric power. The potteries of Nagoya have installed electric furnaces, thus utilising the surplus power. By this means the factories have reduced the cost of production by twenty per cent. and, at the same time, are able to produce goods of superior quality on account of the average of heat ensured by the installation of electirc furnaces.

HEMP BRAID AND STRAW BRAID

Straw braid, of which straw hats are manufactured, is produced in Kagawa, Okayama, Hiroshima and a few other prefectures. Hemp braid is produced in Niigata and Ibaraki prefectures. These goods are manufactured by the farmers as a subsidiary industry, but the industry is encouraged by the prefectural authorities for the promotion of the export trade. Every prefecture has trade associations.

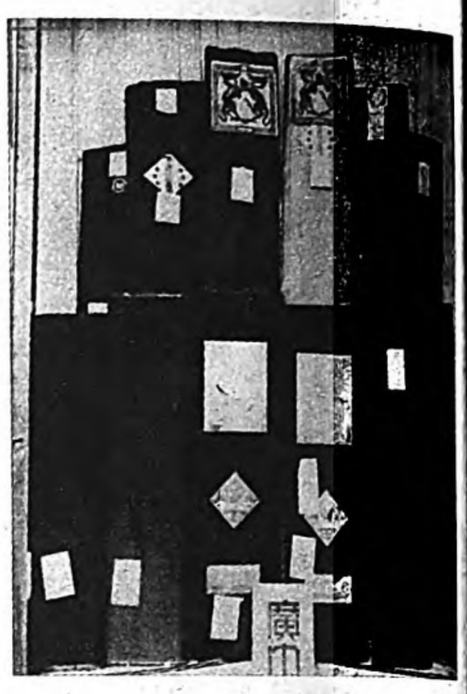
FANCY MATTING AND RICE STRAW MATTING

Fancy matting is largely manufactured in Okayama, Hyogo and Hiroshima prefectures. The matting of Okayama is especially famous, the output amounting to about six million yen a year. These mattings have been



Kokura Suitings

Fancy Mattings



Full Width Woven Goods

LACQUER WARE

Lacquer ware is a speciality of Japan. It is manufactured at several places, but goods for export are chiefly manufactured at and near Kyoto. Sixty per cent. of these goods go to the United States, the rest going to Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Russia, etc. This lacquer ware consists of articles of daily use such as smoking and coffee sets, cups, etc. and few works of art are manufactured.

ART PRODUCTS

Kyoto, a city over a thousand years old, occupies an important position in art production, as many skilled workmen are to be found there. Embroidery, which is a speciality of Kyoto, is chiefly exported to America, Canada, Australia, Denmark, India, the South Sea Islands, China, Manila, etc. Embroidery for export differs a little from that for domestic consumption. For instance that for export is not embroidered with silk thread on account of the high cost, but is dyed and so made as to appear to be in relief as if embroidered. There is also some made of rayon and muslin. Dyeing is one of the two principal industries of Kyoto, and the art of dyeing has peculiarities of its own. A happi coat of silk sells for something over four yen, while one of muslin sells for something over three yen. Inlaid work is exported to the United States, Great Britain, Germany, and France. It consists of cigarette cases, cuff-buttons, brooches, arm-rings, necklaces, etc. Their exportation is yearly increasing, the United States being the principal customer. The copper ware exported from Kyoto

Weaving Rice Straw Matting

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Damascene Trays

nsists of flower vases, electric light nds, flower pots, etc., which are ported to France, Belgium, Switzer- nd and Great Britain. Over one half them go to France.

Cloisonne is a special product of pan. It is made by glazing gold, ver, and stones. Nagoya is the chief oducer of cloisonne, and the elegance d skill of her products appeal to ropeans and Americans, and the arly export is gradually increasing.

CULTURE PEARLS

Since olden times natural pearls have been taken from the waters along the coast of Shima in Mie Prefecture, but their quantity has now been considerably reduced through the reckless fishing of them. In order to meet the situation, the culture of pearls has been started. At present the culture pearls of the Mikimoto Co. are largely exported abroad, and have become strong rivals of natural pearls. Seeing a hopeful future for the undertaking, marine products industrialists have put their hands to it, and now the annual putput, most of which is exported to France, reaches about two million yen in value. Imitation pearls were first manufactured in Osaka, but at present Nara Prefecture is also producing them. They are exported to Europe,

Carved Crystal Shelf Ornaments

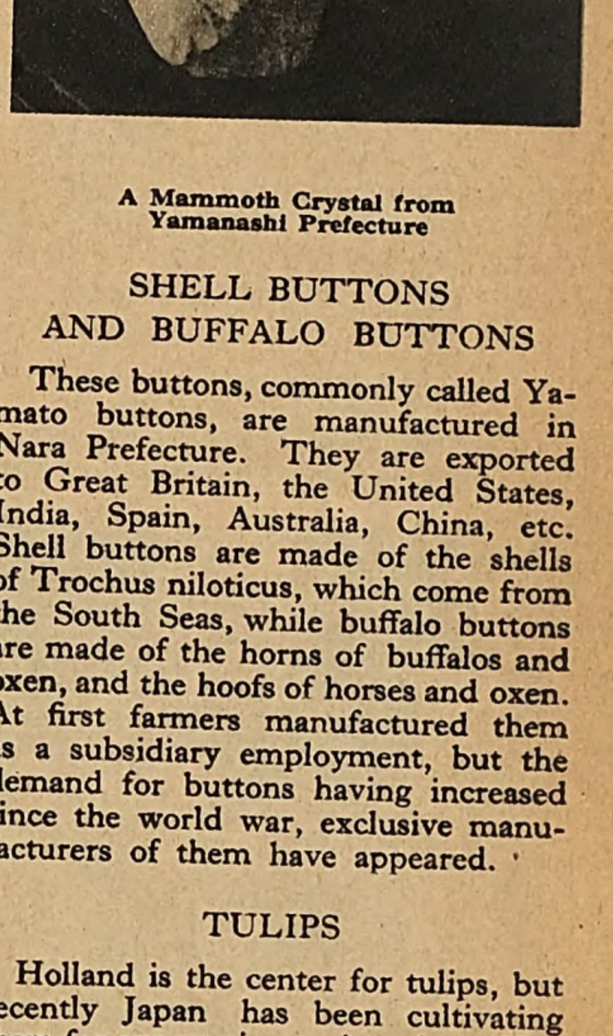
America and Australia.

TOYS

Kyoto is famous for its dolls, as a good number of the best known doll makers are to be found there. The dolls of Kyoto are known for their elegance and exquisiteness, qualities in which they outrival German dolls. Japanese dolls are exported to Great Britain, America, South America, Australia, and the countries along the Mediterranean Sea, Turkey, and China. Wooden dolls are chiefly produced at Nagoya. The manufacture of wooden dolls is carried out as a household industry, but at present there are some big factories. Wooden dolls are exported to the amount of two million yen to Oriental countries.

MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS

Nagoya is famous for the manufacture of musical instruments, and more especially of violins, which are now exported to Europe. Machinery is used for the manufacture of some parts of the instruments, so that the cost of production has been much reduced.



A Mammoth Crystal from Yamanashi Prefecture

SHELL BUTTONS AND BUFFALO BUTTONS

These buttons, commonly called Yamato buttons, are manufactured in Nara Prefecture. They are exported to Great Britain, the United States, India, Spain, Australia, China, etc. Shell buttons are made of the shells of Trochus niloticus, which come from the South Seas, while buffalo buttons are made of the horns of buffalos and oxen, and the hoofs of horses and oxen. At first farmers manufactured them as a subsidiary employment, but the demand for buttons having increased since the world war, exclusive manufacturers of them have appeared.

TULIPS

Holland is the center for tulips, but recently Japan has been cultivating them for exportation to America. The Japanese tulips are reared in Niigata Prefecture. The first seeds were imported from Holland, but the Horticultural Farms of the prefecture having improved the plants, the products of the prefecture are even superior to those of Holland. At present fifty thousand bulbs are exported to America a year. Samples of about twenty thousand bulbs were exported this year in competition with Dutch bulbs.

PEONIES

Niigata Prefecture is known for its big peonies, and recently ways have been found to make them still bigger, so that some of them now measure over two feet in diametre. Peonies of

Dolls for Export

ans are produced in Kyoto, and exported to Spain, Manila and other in countries. The fans for export different in design from those for nestic use. They are made dexterly to be pleasing to ladies. The es are fifty sen for a silk fan and ty sen for a paper fan.

CRYSTAL WARE

rystal is a special product of Kofu, capital of Yamanashi Prefecture. is made into necklaces which are ely used by American ladies. It is made into other ornaments and cts, most of which are exported to United States. Recently, however, stone has been getting scarce, so being imported from Brazil and ked up in Kofu.

Making Wooden Toys in Nagoya

A Violin Factory in Nagoya

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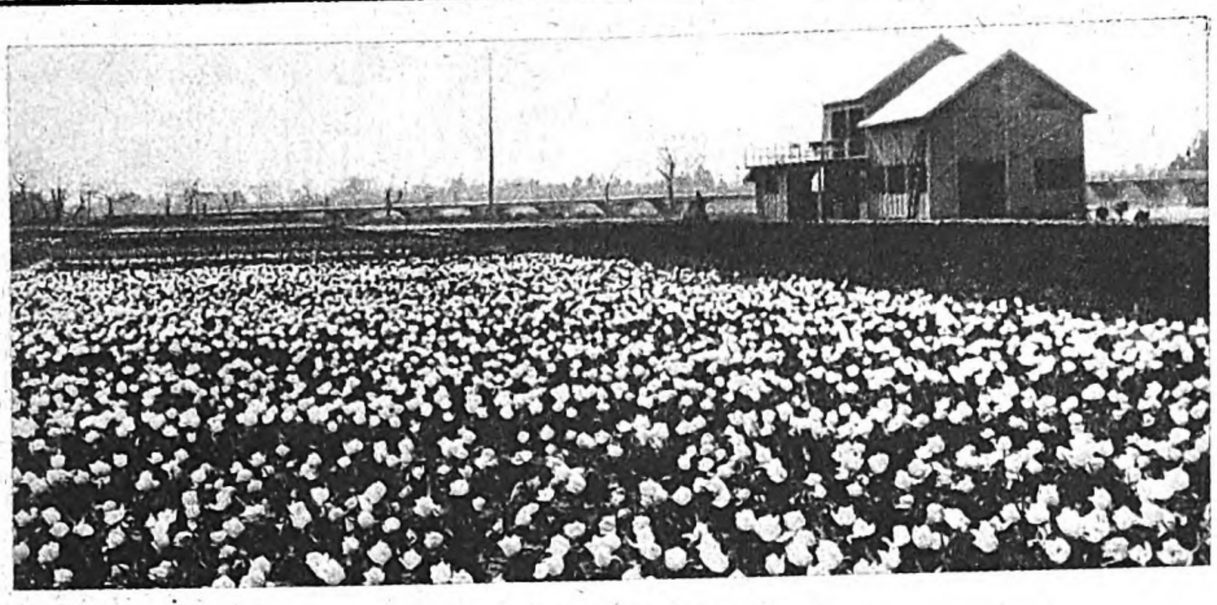


A Tulip Garden in Niigata Prefecture

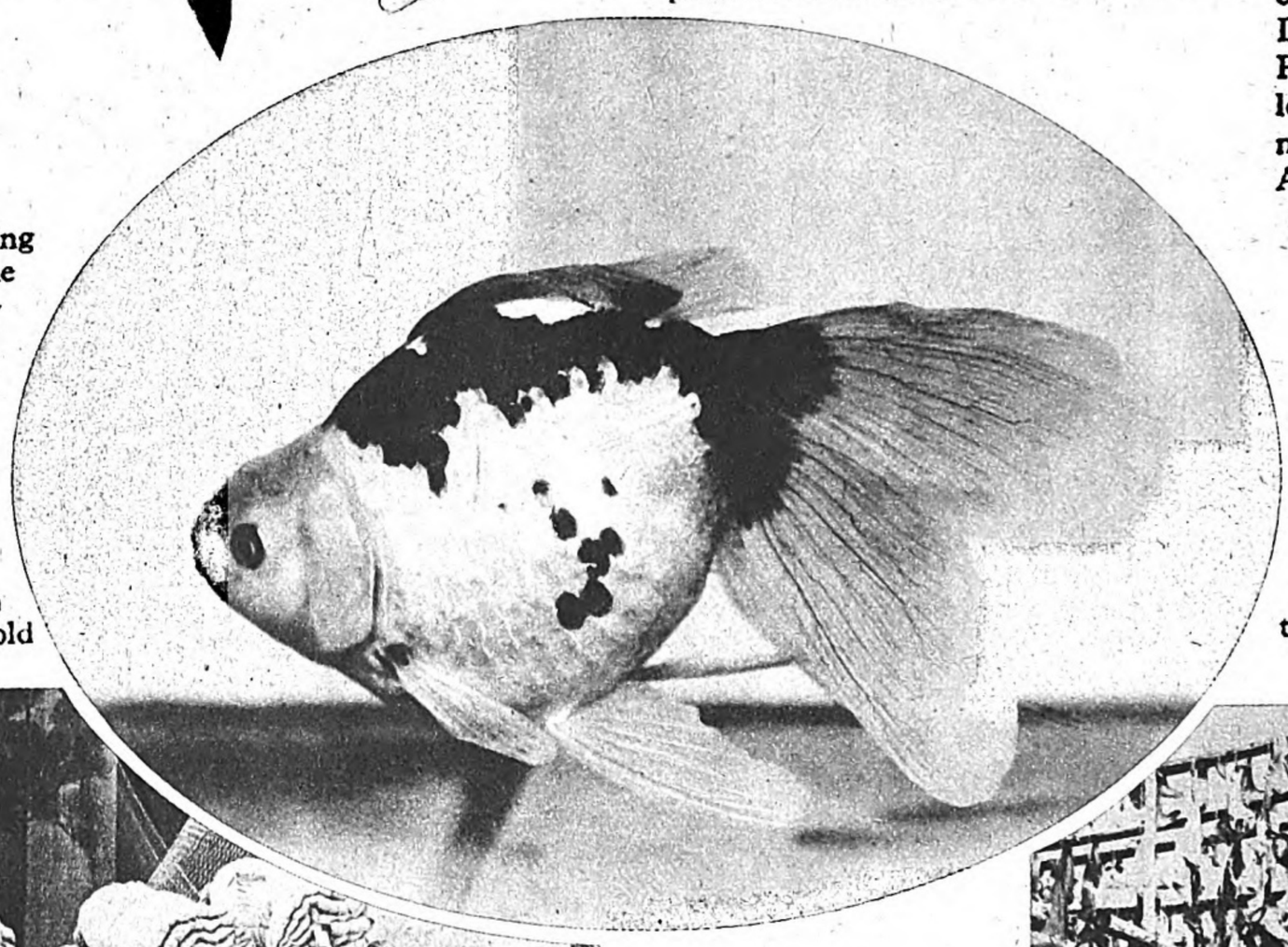
A Peony Garden in Niigata Prefecture

Varieties of Peonies Raised in Niigata Prefecture

various colours are produced, ranging from the simplest and lightest to the most complex and deep. Their fragrance also has been much improved. This year five thousand plants have been contracted for by a Dutch flower company, the first step having thus been taken toward the exportation of the plants.

GOLD FISH

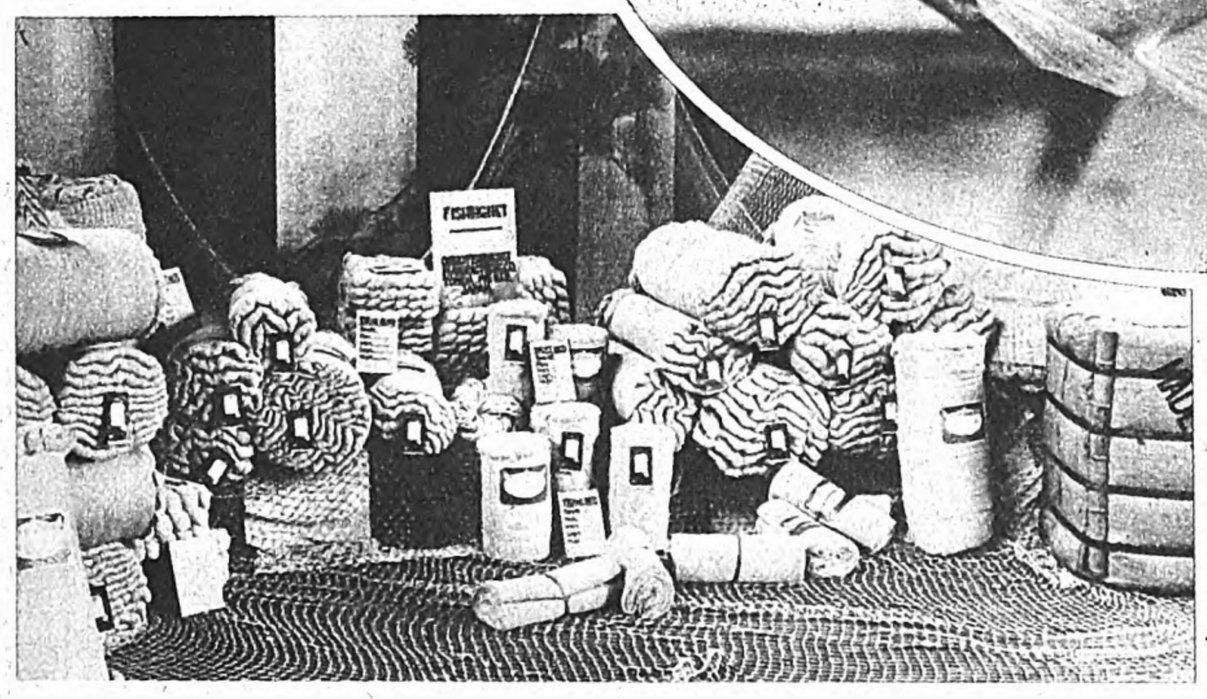
Since last year Japanese gold fish have been exported to America. Gold fish are reared at Koriyama in Nara Prefecture. There are many varieties, such as Ryukin, Demekin, Shubunkin, etc. Recently Aichi Prefecture has set about rearing gold fish and made a first shipment of them to America.



A "Ryukin" Goldfish

FISHING NETS

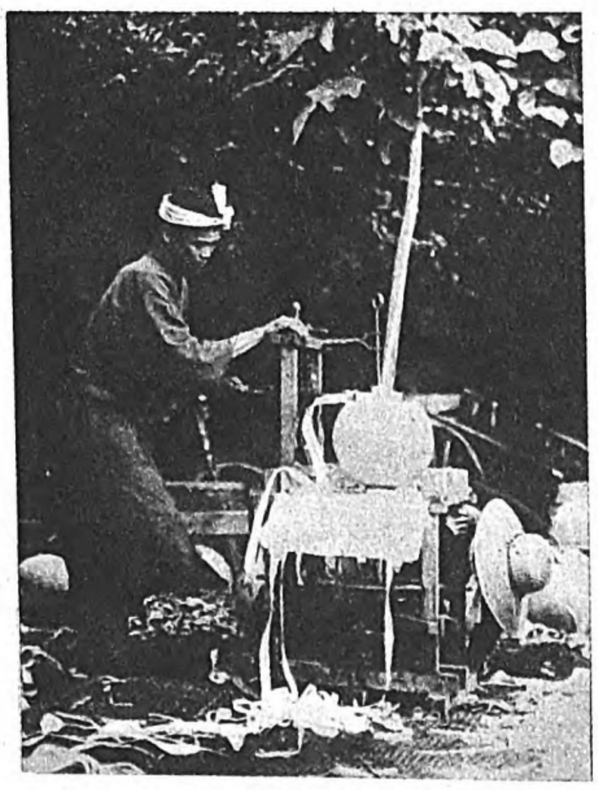
Fishing nets are exported to Russia, China, North America, Canada, the South Sea Islands, etc. They are manufactured in Mie Prefecture to the amount of over four million yen a year. There are a number of modern factories engaged in large scale production.



Fishing Nets in Mie Prefecture

MANILA ROPE

Manila rope which is sold to China, is produced in Nara prefecture. Of course rope is not a special product of the prefecture, but the factory of the Toa Rope Manufacturing Company, which claims to be one of the three biggest facotries of the kind in Japan, is in the prefecture, which accounts for the large production of the goods, which amounts to over ¥1,400,000 a year.



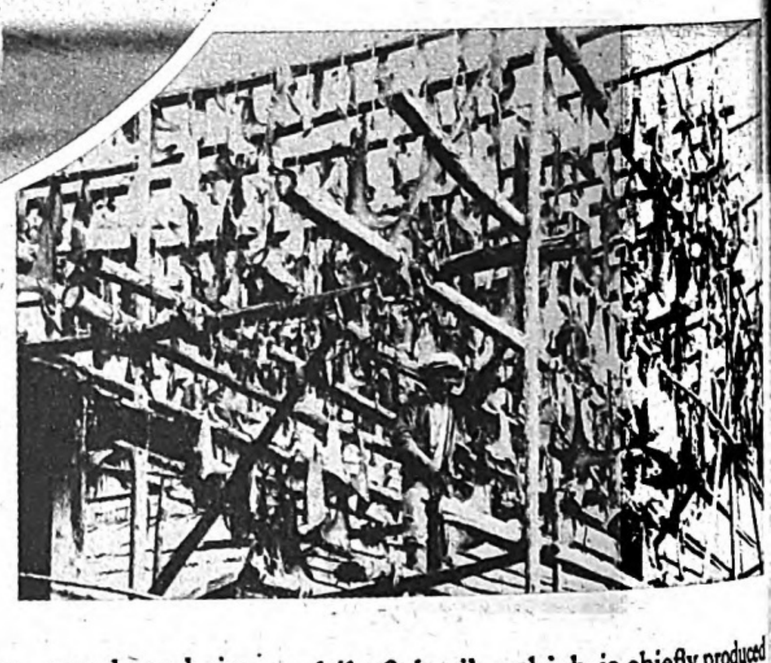
Cutting a Gourd into Thin Ribbons for Drying

SEWING NEEDLES

Hiroshima Prefecture is the center of sewing needle production, ninety per cent. of the needles consumed in Japan being produced in the prefecture. Needles are exported to China, Manchuria, India, French Indo-China, the South Sea Islands, Siam, and America, thus entitling Japan to the name of one of the three great needle manufacturing countries of the world.

PATENT MEDICINES

Japanese patent medicines are exported to China, the South Sea Islands, Mexico, etc. They are produced in Toyama, Nara, Mie, and Kyoto. The medicines of Nara are made of Western drugs. Mie medicine is chiefly pills, while the products of Kyoto consist of sleeping doses, medicines for skin diseases, vitamin A, injections, etc.



Drying Sharks' Fins

SOAP

The suspension of the importation of Marseilles soaps owing to the world war gave rise to the manufacture of soap by the Japanese. The soaps for industrial purposes are manufactured in Mie Prefecture and exported to China, Great Britain, America, and China, while fish oil, which is chiefly produced in Iwate Prefecture, is exported to Germany through Kobe.

WESTERN FOOD UTENSILS

Niigata prefecture has metal work experiment stations for the encouragement of the metal industry, and naturally produces superior cooking utensils such as knives, forks and spoons. These products are known for their strong plating and beautiful designs. Their yearly output is estimated at 660,000 dozens.

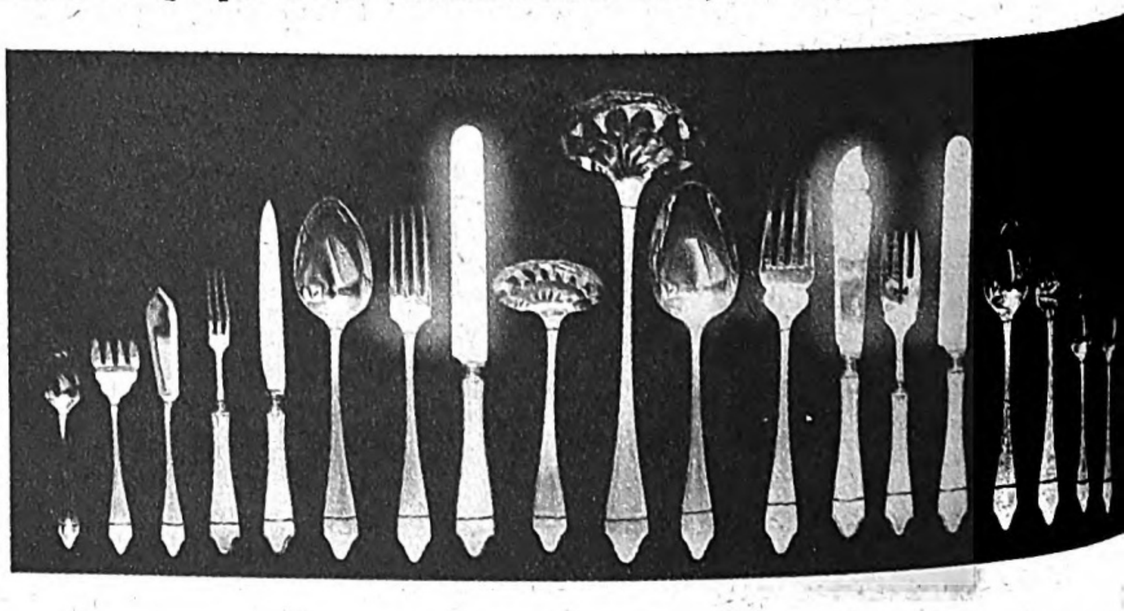


Table Ware Made in Niigata Prefecture

FOOD STUFFS

Japanese green tea is grown at Uji in the Prefecture of Kyoto. That is why green tea is called "Uji," but the green tea for export is largely grown in Shizuoka Prefecture. The powdered tea used in ice cream is, however, chiefly grown at Uji. Green tea is exported to America and Russia. Dried gourd is produced in Ibaraki Prefecture. Gourd as a food was for long used exclusively in Japan, but now it is canned and exported to America. It is delicious, and the demand is yearly increasing. Of marine products canned salmon and sardines in oil are exported to America, Russia, etc. ,while sharks' fins, dried earshell, and mackerel from Morioka are exported to China. The latter products are boiled without seasoning and canned. Vegetable oils, such as gingelly, linseed and rape seed oils, are produced in Mie Prefecture and exported to Great Britain, America, and China, in Mie Prefecture. They meet domestic demands and are exported to China. Carbonate of lime, also produced in the prefecture, is exported to China, the South Sea Islands, America and Russia, as materials for the manufacture of tooth powders, toilet articles, paints, rubber goods, paper, cloth etc.

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Promising Goods for Export

A GENERAL survey of the foreign trade of Japan will convince us that the following articles are most promising for export: raw silk, silk goods, marine products, cotton goods, rayon, sugar, chemical industrial goods, ceramics, etc.

RAW SILK—Raw silk goods head the list of the most important export commodities in Japan, and their output is yearly increasing; especially since 1916 Japan has outrivaled China, and has enjoyed the fame of being the greatest silk producing country in the world, now producing over sixty per cent. of the world's silk.

In 1912 the raw silk and silk goods exported amounted to ¥160,000,000, which increased in 1928 to ¥740,000,000, showing 36.7% and 44.6% respectively of the total amount of the foreign trade.

Sericulture is regarded as a subsidiary industry of farmers. Since the industry needs a great amount of labour, the cheapness of farm labour constitutes the most important factor in the industry. It is, however, a question how long this favourable condition for sericulture will continue. It is a matter of satisfaction, however, that at present a scientific method is being adopted by which the industry shall be freed from such hindrances of nature as climate, temperature, etc., and also a scheme is being considered for the application of a large industrial system, thus economising labour and increasing output as well as standardizing products.

Ninety per cent. of Japanese raw silk and silk goods is exported to the United States. Under the circumstances the rayon industry, which is growing in the United States, must be a strong rival of Japanese silk. The fact that at present rayon is inferior to silk in point of brightness, resistance to moisture, etc., so far safeguards silk from being deprived of its market by rayon, but even then the sale of silk is not a little affected by the cheap price of rayon. If rayon approaches natural silk in quality it can not but greatly affect the sale of silk. Then it may be said without exaggeration that the future of natural silk depends upon the future of the rayon industry.

The export of silk has made a marked development since half a century ago when only cocoons were exported, but still raw silk makes up a large portion of the export of silk, and there is much room for the development of the export of such finished products as silk textile goods. The comparison between raw silk and silk textile goods in the percentage of the total amount of exports may be shown as follows:

Year	Silk	Silk textile goods
1912	31 %	5.7%
1926	36.8%	6.5%
1928	37.8%	6.7%

The above returns show a very slow increase of the export of silk textile goods as compared with raw silk goods. The expansion of the market for silk textile goods is considered quite promising should proper attention be paid to the tastes of consumers.

MARINE PRODUCTS—The long coastline and the existence of world-famous fishing grounds in her seas are great blessings to Japan. The amount of fish taken in home and colonial waters, and the Russian fishing grounds is estimated at over four hundred million yen a year. But the amount of fish exported, including canned salmon, trout, and crabs from the Russian territory, is only ¥70,000,000, or seventeen per cent. of the total amount of the output. This insignificant figure may be attributed to the big consumption of fish at home.

The export of fish will, however, be gradually increased since the fishery business in Japan is changing from primitive coastal fishing to distant sea fishing through the increase of big fishing vessels. The export of pearls is also taking the same line of progress. The culture of pearls is famous as a special industy of Japan.

COTTON GOODS—The cotton industry is one of the most developed capitalistic enterprises in Japan. The fact that comparatively cheap labour is obtainable in Japan and that her best customers are in a neighbouring country with a very big population and where the industry is not yet developed gives a very promising future to the cotton industry of Japan.

Judged by the amount of cotton consumed, the spinning industry of Japan occupies the third place among world spinners, closely approaching the British industry, which occupies second place. In the number of spindles, however, the British industry has ten times as many as the Japanese. This fact shows that Great Britain produces high grade fine count yarns far superior to Japan's. The Japanese industry, stimulated by the demand at home and the growth of a rival industry in China and India, is producing fine count yarns, as is attested by the following export returns:

Year	Cotton Yarns: 20 Counts and under	Cotton Yarns: 21 Counts and over
1902	19.2	0.7
1907	28.4	1.9
1912	46.8	6.9
1917	74.4	33.7
1922	66.2	48.5
1926	15.1	55.6
1928	8.0	17.9

(Unit 1 million Yen)

It will be seen that the fine counts have taken the place of coarse counts. The cotton industry is under the necessity of making technical improvements in the face of the growth of the spinning industry in China and India, and moreover the improvement of labour conditions in Japan, such as the increase of wages to the standard level of international wages, the abolition of allnight labour, etc., encourage the Japanese cotton industry to advance toward the production of higher grade goods.

The export of Japanese cotton goods has been much affected for the last few years by the anti-Japanese boycott movements in China as shown in the above returns. With the establishment of the new Republic of China, which is sure to raise the level of the standard of living, there will arise a new demand for high grade goods which will accelerate the increase of the export of Japanese goods. The new market in the South Seas, Middle Asia, the Near East and other places gives room for the further expansion of such Japanese goods as cotton cloth, underwear, etc.

RAYON—Rayon is no longer a mere substitute for raw silk, but is an independent raw material for textiles. Needless to say, rayon is a strong rival of raw silk. The United States is the greatest consumer of rayon in the world and since 1926 has consumed a greater quantity of rayon than of raw silk. The consumption of rayon in Japan, which was seventy-four tons in 1912 has increased one hundreds fold.

The export trade of rayon in Japan is not yet firmly established owing to the fact that the pulp used as raw material is imported, since it cannot be profitably manufactured in Japan. The industry will, however, conquer this obstacle, and the increase of demand for the goods in the South Sea Islands and Asiatic countries will make rayon one of the important export goods.

SUGAR—The sugar produced in Japan long failed to meet the domestic demand, the deficit being made good by the import of foreign sugar, but in 1928-9 owing to the rich harvest in Formosa, the import of sugar entirely stopped. Even before that time sugar had been one of the important foreign trade commodities, as it had been imported in the form of crude sugar and re-exported in the form of refined sugar. The rich harvest of sugar cane in Formosa was due to the weather and other conditions, but progress in the technical side of the manufacture of sugar and improvement of cane plants were also responsible, so that it may be said that the surplus of supply of crude sugar is now an accomplished fact. Moreover the rise of the standard of living of the Chinese people will be accompanied by an increase of the consumption of refined sugar. Of course we must take into account the intrusion of Java sugar, but the refined sugar of Java is not suited to the taste of the Chinese, so that China will continue to be the greatest market for Japanese refined sugar until the refinery in industry China has reached the stage of self-supply.

CHEMICAL INDUSTRY—Chemical goods, such as drugs, fertilizers, medicines, toilet goods, celluloid, etc., were largely manufactured during the world war, but some of them are now imported, since the manufacturers could not stand the post-war depression. It may, however, be said that the chemical industry has a promising future, as hydro-electric power is abundant in Japan and handicraft is superior.

CERAMICS—Next to silk and cotton goods, porcelains have become the most important export goods of Japan. In the amount of the goods exported, Japan comes next to Germany. Dishes occupy the greater portion of the export goods, but recently insulators have been largely exported.

The output of glass during 1926 reached ¥45,000,000, and in 1928 glass exports showed a surplus of ¥12,000,000 over imports. The goods exported are bottles, glasses and glass balls, while those imported are glass panes, lenses, etc. The glass industry has made marked progress, and high-grade articles are gradually being manufactured, but only low-grade goods are still exported to China and the South-Sea Islands.

It is quite recent that enamelled iron wares have been added to the list of export goods. Now Japan is able to supply the raw materials, such as iron plates, glaze, etc. and the goods are exported to China, India, and the South Sea Islands to the amount of six million yen a year.

The cement industry made a remarkable development during the world war, and at present over twenty million barrels is produced a year, of which about four million yen worth is exported to China, India, and the South Sea Islands. The demand for cement in these regions will increase in the future with the rise in the standard of living there. The export of cement has a bright future in view of the fact that Europe and America can not compete with Japan in point of freight rates.

Associations Handling Important Export Goods

THESE associations were established in accordance with a law passed by the Diet in 1925. Of course associations connected with the export trade had existed before the law was promulagted, such as the industrial associations, marine products associations, important products associations, etc., but most of these associations were negative in purpose, being satisfied with the mere prevention of reductions in prices, protection of goods from reckless manufacture of inferior quality, etc. The law has for its object the systematic control of exporters, the prevention of useless rivalry among them and the creation of common equipment for enhancement of the export trade. Thus the law provides for the organization of competent associations to assure the common prosperity of the exporters and the development of the export trade of Japan. According to this law an association must be established on two conditions: it must be organised by exporters engaged in the export of important articles of the same category, and by those who export their goods to the same market.

Such an association has two sides to its work, the positive and the negative. The positive work consists of: the undertaking of export for the members of the association; giving facilities for export; custody of the goods; packing, etc., thus simplifying the complicated business of exporting. It also serves as an influential middleman in the making of contracts. It is very useful in improving the standard of goods, securing uniformity of packing, etc. On the negative side, such an association controls its members in order to rectify evils existing in their business methods, and at the same time sets necessary limitations on the spheres of business of the members. In this way exporters are protected from loss through depreciation of prices caused by reckless competition, while importers can be assured of the quality of the imported goods. These associations also undertake necessary investigation of markets abroad, the opening of new markets, etc.

Associations are subject to the control of the law as regards organisation, dissolution, joining and withdrawing of members, rights and duties of members, accountants, etc. The Minister of Commerce and Industry gives necessary orders to the associations from time to time. It has been four years since the law was promulgated, and the associations which have been organized in accordance with it have not yet developed very satisfactorily. The principal associations are as follows:

The Russian Export Trade Association, *Tokyo*

The Japan Blanket Export Association, *Osaka*

The Association for the Export of Japanese Oranges to N. America, *Shimizu, Yokohama*

The Association for the Export of Japanese Oranges to S. America, *Shizuoka Prefecture*

The Kyoto Association for Export to America, *Kyoto*

The Association for Export to France, Sweden and Belgium, *Tokyo*

The Japan Enamelled Iron Ware Export Association, *Osaka*

The Japan Brush Export Association, *Osaka*

The Japan-Russia Orange Export Association, *Shizuoka*

The Japan Porcelain Export Association, *Nagoya*

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The Seaport of Yokkaichi Gaining Importance in International Trade

THE PORT OF YOKKAICHI

By Keizo Ichimura, Governor of Miye Prefecture

Yokkaichi is an Important trade port situated between Yokohama and Kobe, having been first designated as a special exporting port in 1889 and later made a special importing port, and finally in 1899 an open port. Under the established policy of the government to build suitable accommodation for large ships in central Japan there, prefectural port extension work is progressing rapidly.

There is a 30 foot depth of water at low tide at the dredger moorings capable of accommodating ships of 10,000 tons and over. In the port the depth is about 40 feet. The breakwater is 956 meters long. Thus the port is regular port of call for N.Y.K. and O.S.K. steamers, and is a center for the movements of many tramp steamers. When the present extension work is completed, it is believed that the port will advance its position as a trade port and distributing center for goods produced in central Japan.

Yokkaichi has been an important center for land and sea transportation for more than three centuries. A brief history of this seaport says that as early as 1870 the first of the forwarding agents found themselves in Yokkaichi, and three years later a regular line was opened from there to Yokohama by the Nippon Yusen Kaisha. In 1908 a line to America via Suez and a Pacific line were established. Only a decade after the opening, Yokkaichi came to rank sixth among the Japanese open ports, piling up ten million yen of exports and imports in a single year. In 1910 a plan for improvement and extension of the port was set about at an estimate of ¥1,034,000. Later ¥6,810,000 were spent for the construction of a breakwater of 1,564 meters, the dredging of 219 acres of the sea-bottom, the filling up of 191 acres of the water front and the building of warehouses, steam lines, etc. Other extension work, which will cost ¥2,200,000, was begun this year.

For land traffic Yokkaichi is also a center and its position will soon be improved, as the Sangi steam line is to be completed across the main island of Japan. At present a project is afloat for the reclamation of a large portion of the water front near the port, which will be used for factory sites.

The more important exports shipped from the port are pottery, knitted cotton goods, casket and case boards, and rice, while the imports handled are chiefly ginned cotton, soy-bean cakes, peas and beans, compound fertilizers, etc. The imports and exports combined amount to about fifty million yen a year, and are carried from and to China, the United States, British India, European countries, South America, Africa, Australia and Siam.

FISHING NETS are an important product of Yokkaichi, and are manufactured at the Miye Net Manufacturing Co. Mr. Nishiguchi Rihei, chairman of the Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Yokkaichi, is the president of the company. Its manufactures have an outlet in Hamburg, Lisbon, Copenhagen, Los Angeles and, recently, in Russia. The following figures give the yearly value of nets exported by the company :

In 1924	.....	¥149,200
1925	.....	251,700
1926	.....	332,300
1927	.....	383,700
1928	.....	604,100

The making of **BANKO** ware is two hundred years old in Yokkaichi, and the ware is now popular among foreigners. In spite of the general business depression at present, there are 2,300 workmen employed in the industry, and the annual output reaches ¥3,500,000. Today Banko ware is exported to the United States, Canada, India, the Straits Settlements and the South Seas, and amounts in value to over one million yen a year. In the industry technical improvements are energetically pursued.

THE YOKKAICHI SOKO-UNYU KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(The Yokkaichi Warehousing and Transport Co., Ltd.)

THE YOKKAICHI RINKO KABUSHIKI KAISHA

(The Yokkaichi Port Service Co., Ltd.)

President: KAZUE KUMAZAWA

Accommodations indispensable to the service of modern ports are means of transportation of goods from ships to freight cars. The Yokkaichi Soko-Unyo Kabushiki-kaisha, with a view to perfecting the service at the port of Yokkaichi, on which depends the destiny of the port, has invested a large sum of money and has commenced the construction of wharves, sheds and warehouses. It has already completed a warehouse furnished w th modern equipment covering some 6.5 acres of land and standing at a point where land and sea transportation meet. It is expected with good reason that a wharf capable of mooring 10,000 vessels, which will be completed next year, will double or triple the business transactions carried out at the port. Mean-

while the company has already doubled the goods in its warehouse, by economizing on service expenses by 30 per cent. as compared with Tokyo, Osaka, Kobe, Nagoya and Yokohama. When the Yokkaichi port line of the Ise Electric Railway Co., a sister company of the Y.S.Y.K., which connects Nagoya, Ogaki and Gifu with Ujiyamada where the Grand Shrine of Ise is, has been finished, the Y.S.Y.K. will enjoy still more vigorous business.

THE PORT OF YOKKAICHI

Yokkaichi, which is situated in the northern part of Miye Prefecture, is an important port, lying midway between Yokohama and Osaka and Kobe. Miye Prefecture, with the purpose of making Yokkaichi a first rank port, started construction work in the last year of Meiji (1912), and the first plan was completed in 1921 with an outlay of 7,000,000 yen, including a government subsidy. At present the second plan is being carried out.

Again Miye Prefecture, the Yokkaichi Warehousing and Transport Co. and the Yokkaichi Port Service Co. have embarked, at a cost of 1,000,000 yen including a government subsidy for the former and 500,000 yen for the latter two combined, on the construction of wharves capable of accommodating three 10,000 ton vessels and eight 3,000 ton vessels. A wharf for 10,000 ton vessels for the exclusive use of the Y.S.Y.K. and the Y.R.K. will, as mentioned above, be completed next year. The port of Yokkaichi is made use of by the Blue Funnel, the Harbour, the N.Y.K., the O.S.K. and other home and foreign steamship companies, and the foreign trade of the port amounts to 100,000,000 yen a year.

Again, the port handles 2,000,000 tons of ocean-going steamers and 800,000 tons of coast vessels annually, and the routes abroad go to Europe, the United States, Canada, South America, India, China and all other important countries of the world.

The advantageous feature of the port of Yokkaichi is its unique cheapness of its port services. They are cheaper by thirty per cent. than those of Nagoya. The difference is greater when they are compared with those of Osaka, Kobe, Tokyo and Yokohama. The same thing can be said of the warehouse charges. These advantages, together with the satisfactory equipment of the port, make Yokkaichi known to every one in the world engaged in shipping.

The Yokkaichi Warehousing and Transport Co., Ltd.

The Yokkaichi Warehousing Co. is the oldest company in the port, having a history of nearly half a century. The president of the company is Mr. Ichiei Kumazawa, a well known figure in Japanese industrial circles. The ferro-concrete building of the company is situated near the port of Yokkaichi, in a very convenient place connecting land and sea routes. The site covers an area of 6.5 acres. The company has the most modern loading equipment. The land owned by the company covers an area of 23,000 tsubo at a point where sea and land join and it is used for the loading of lumber and coal. The fact that the port of Yokkaichi loads far more cheaply and has greater efficiency than any other port is due to the perfect equipment of this company. The company well understands the public mission of the port, and never ceases to improve it.

The goods the company deals with at present are seeds, chemical fertilizers, grain, paper, canned goods, sugar, newsprint, soy beans, marine fertilizer, foreign timber, etc. The value of goods in storage is always over ¥10,000,000. The company's assets are as follows :

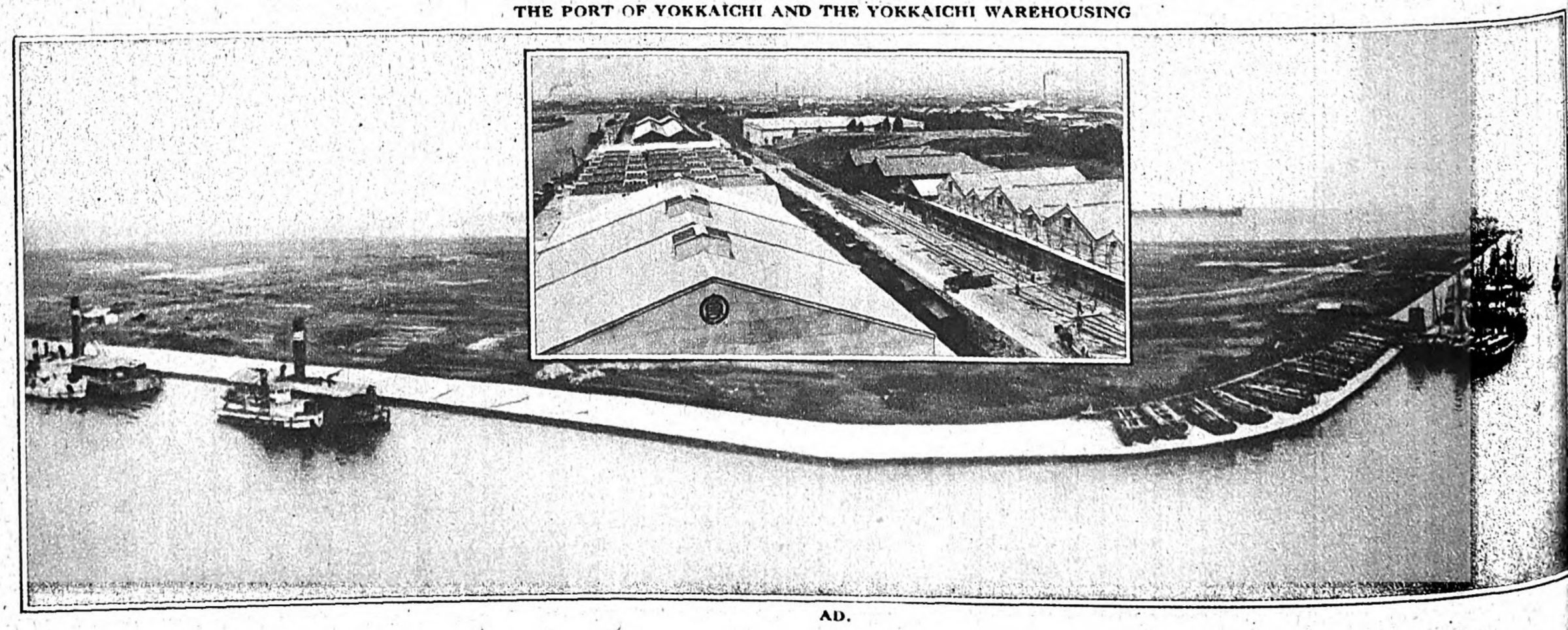
Capital	¥1,000,000
Paid up	520,000
Reserves	250,000

A dividend of 1.6% per annum is declared in every business term.

The loading equipment consists of :

Telpher for timber	1
Electric cranes	5
Sampans	20
Launches	2
Light Railway Line..	2,000 metres

THE PORT OF YOKKAICHI AND THE YOKKAICHI WAREHOUSING



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The peculiar feature of the company is that its warehouse has a private boat train line, so that the transit of goods to and from freight cars is very smoothly carried out. The company is planning to have a private pier at the port, and for that purpose is going to establish a company called the Yokkaichi Rinko Kaisha as a sister company to be annexed during 1930.

The Yokkaichi Rinko Kabushiki Kaisha.

The president of the company is Mr. Ichiei Kumazawa. The company when established will construct a pier on reclaimed land No. 2, which together with a part of the pier owned by the Prefecture, will enable the company to use a land area of 23,000 subo for the temporary storing of goods.

Thus when the two companies are merged, they will possess an exclusive pier and a warehouse and the land for land and sea junction covering 44,000 subo, thus becoming the biggest company in Yokkaichi.

With the completion of the above mentioned equipment, the company will, it is firmly believed, double the present trade of the port, which now stands at ¥100,000,000.

The Port of Shimizu

Shimizu is a natural harbor situated on the western side of Suruga Bay, 8 miles east of Shizuoka. In the days of the feudal system, she was but a meagre fishing village. Her development was first dawned with the opening of Yokohama for the foreign trade in 1859, when Shimizu started in the maritime service for the transportation of teas to Yokohama. In 1889, the Tokaido Rwy. line was completed and the ports traffic was seriously affected that it soon dwindled away to practical nil, owing to the absorption of freight by the rail. However, 1906 is a most important year, for in May of that year the direct tea export was inaugulated by the Kanagawa Maru one of the American line steamers of Nippon Yusen Kaisha. They scheduled several steamers to call into Shimizu for tea cargo destined to America. The example set by the company was subsequently followed by other native and foreign steamship companies.

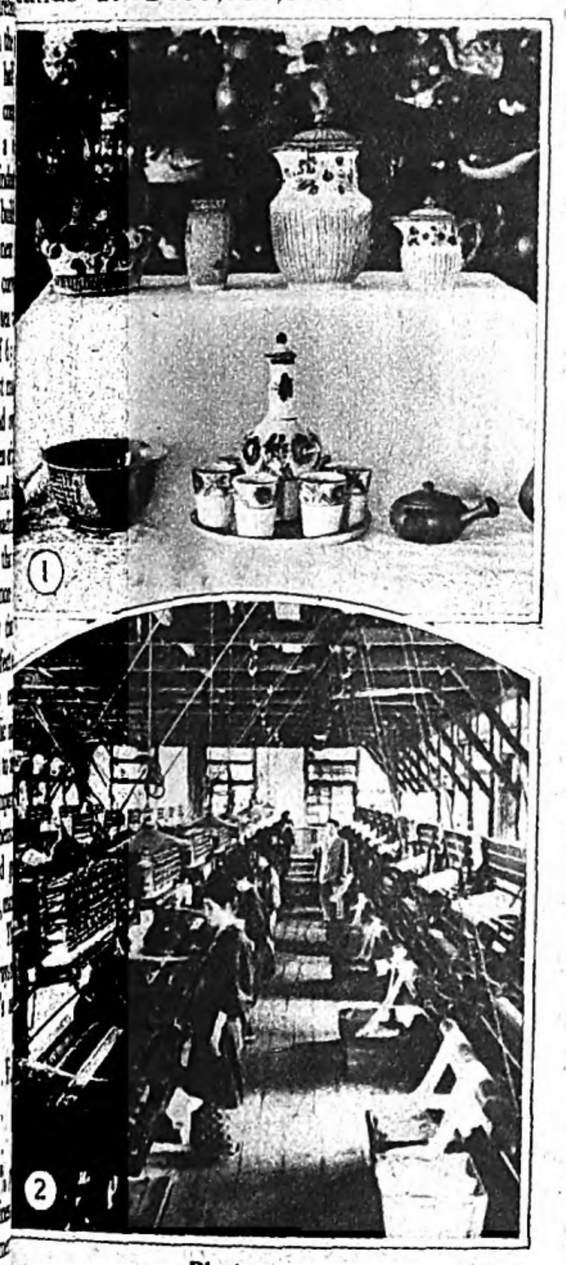

Photo s
1. Banko Ware
2. Miye Net Mfg. Co.

THE PORT OF SHIMIZU
BEAUTIFUL AND ROMANTIC

By Shirane Takesuke, Governor of Shizuoka Prefecture

At the foot ot Mt. Fuji, Japan's mous peak, lies the port of Shimizu is situated on a large inlet and rrounded on three sides by land, commodating large ships up to ten housand tons. In the port there is mooring quay nearly 255 metres ng, with every facility for loading nd unloading. Thanks to its being ie best sea-port in Japan between okohama and Kobe, it was s distributing center for materials for construction work in Tokyo and okohama for a considerable period llowing the great earthquake. At resent the green tea of Shizuoka is hipped abroad from this port.

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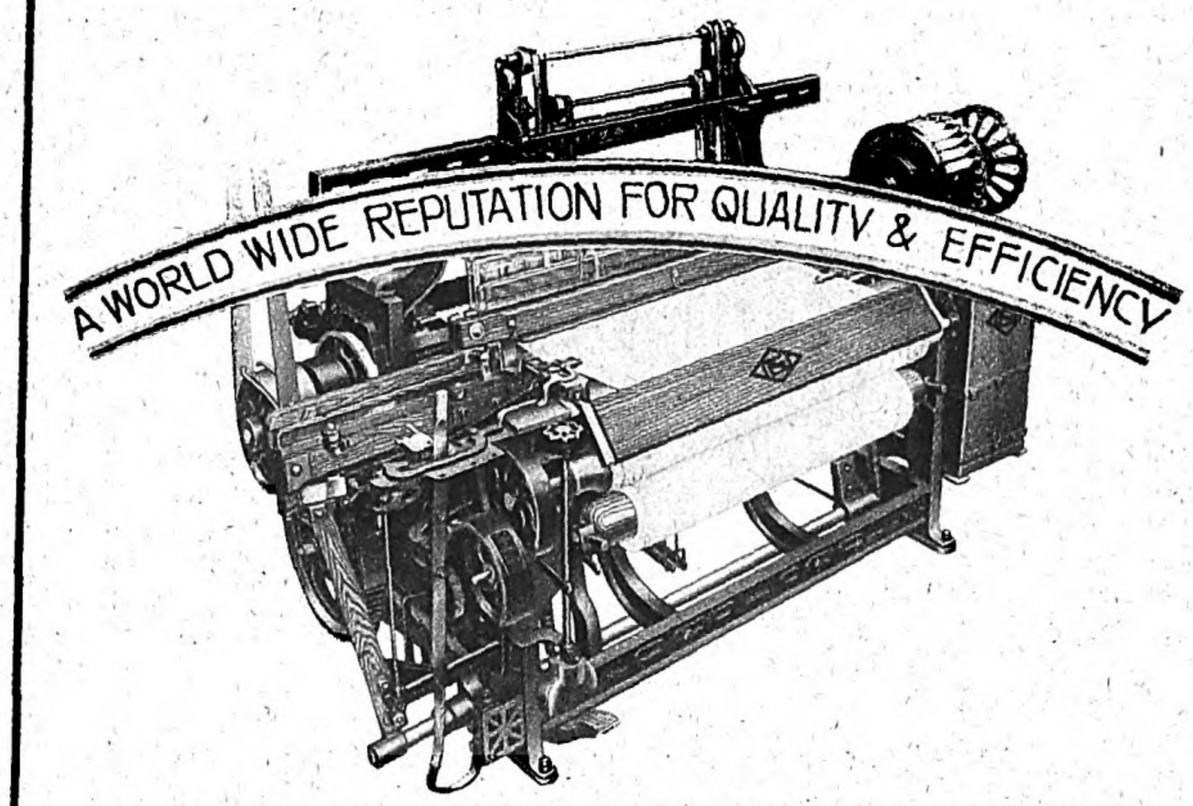

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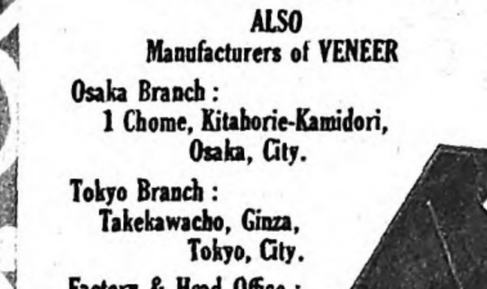

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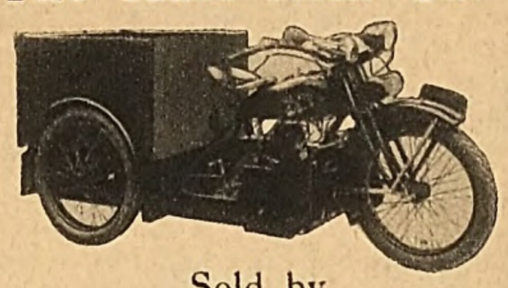

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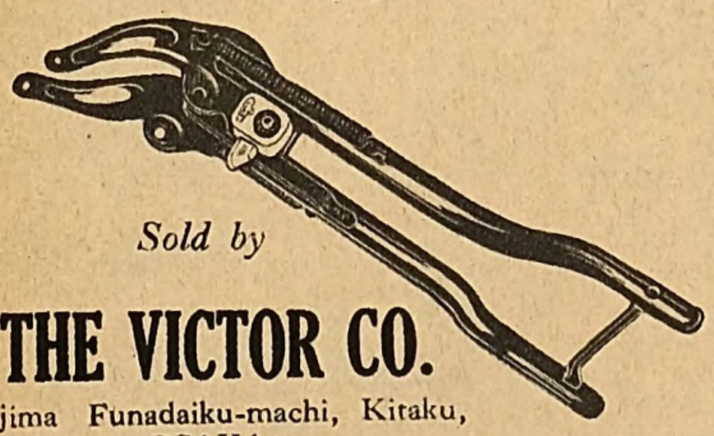

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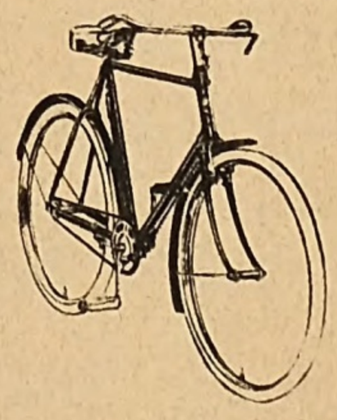

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Associations for Industries Manufacturing Important Articles for Export

WITH a view to improving and developing the manufacture of important articles for export, associations for industries of manufacturing important articles for export have been established in accordance with a law promulgated in 1925. In order to explain the mission of the associations, as an example, the Knit Goods Industry Association is here explained in detail.

The association in question has the following duties :

1. Inspection and control of the manufactures, including the materials used, of the members of the association and inspection and control of their equipment.

2. Establishment of experiment stations, etc.

3. Provision of equipment for manufacturing for the common use of the members.

4. Collection of funds from the members for the improvement and development of the industry.

5. Investigation and study for the improvement of goods manufacture, raw materials and methods of manufacture.

It will be seen that the object of the association is the securing of the co-operation of the members for the improvement of goods for export, thus contributing to the increase of foreign trade and the fulfillment of moral obligations to consumers. The associations at the same time are paying proper attention to the assurance of profits to the producers, as will be seen in the following things to be undertaken by the association of the knit goods industry :

1. The purchase for the members of supplies, and raw materials, and the sale of their manufactures.

2. Fixing of prices and regulation of output.

3. Investigation of and reporting on markets abroad, and expansion of markets.

Since the law was promulgated, the government has been paying annual subsidies to the extent of ¥300,000. In each of the three big industrial cities, Osaka, Tokyo, and Nagoya, a government inspector and four assistant inspectors are stationed, and one assistant inspector is stationed in each of the prefectures which have associations.

Thanks to the government efforts, the associations have developed remarkably. In four years they have grown to 86, scattered over fifteen prefectures. They are classified into nineteen groups according to the goods their members produce, as shown in the following table :

Year	Number of Associations	Number of Federations of Associations
1927.....	49	5
1928.....	71	6
1929.....	86	8

Brocade fabrics	26	Metal ware ..	4
Knit goods	8	Enamelled iron ware	3
Porcelain	3	Celluloid goods	5
Glass ware	4	Brushes	6
Braid	9	Fancy mattings & grass mattings	2
Artificial pearls	3	Pencils.....	3
Bicycles	2	Matches	1
Toys	1	Hats.....	1
Rubber goods	1		
Lacquer ware	1		
Silk fabrics ..	3		
Total.....			86

Of these associations, Osaka has 33, Tokyo 9, Hyogo 9 and Aichi 8.

Of the above mentioned industries, those of silk fabrics, brocade fabrics, metal ware, porcelain and glass ware have room for further increase in the number of associations, but as to the rest, the present number of associations is regarded as quite sufficient, and the members of these associations will focus their attention on the improvement of existing associations.

Countries Exporting to Japan

THE exporting countries in the Japanese trade, like the importing countries, have undergone remarkable changes. Asia continues to lead the list, but Europe, which before the world war had held 34.5 per cent. of the entire trade (yearly, taking an average for five years), and was thus ahead of North and South America, fell off considerably in exports owing to the war. During the war Europe exported to an amount of only about one hundred million yen, or 11.1 per cent. Since the war, Europe has been gradually recovering its economic power, and taking up again its transactions with Japan, but it has not caught up with North and South America. Other continents have increased their transactions since the war.

Before the war, India was at the head of the list of countries exporting to Japan by virtue of the export of raw cotton and after India came Great Britain, the United States, and China. Since the war the United States has taken the leading position through the export of cotton, timber, machinery, iron, wheat, motor cars, etc. Next come British India and China while Great Britain has fallen to the fourth place. Canada, Australia, the Straits Settlements and the Philippines have come to export more to Japan. The following table shows the yearly export to Japan by various countries, taking an average of the five years before and five years after the world war :

	Average of five years 1909-1913 inclusive Value	Index numbers	Average of five years 1919-1923 inclusive Value	Index numbers
China	58,697	100	224,578	383
British India	115,826	100	296,916	256
Straits Settlements	4,466	100	22,673	508
Asiatic Russia	584	100	10,033	1,718
Philipines	3,209	100	15,786	492
Great Britain	106,194	100	202,701	191
France	5,546	100	15,133	273
Germany	54,020	100	58,790	109
Switzerland	1,902	100	10,942	575
United States	87,883	100	664,421	756
Canada	954	100	12,208	1,280
Australia	9,326	100	66,841	717
Egypt	5,738	100	14,538	253
Others	9,656	100	370,894	747

(In thousands of yen)

The above situation has continued up to today, only Germany and Asiatic Russia have shown exceptional increases in their exports to Japan. The import trade of Japan shows a tendency to decrease, but against this tendency Belgium, Poland, Russia, Denmark, South Africa, Portugal, etc. are increasing their exports to Japan. Uruguay, too, has recently opened transactions with Japan.

The following table shows the amounts of exports to Japan and the exporting countries during the last three years :

	1926	1927	1928
United States	680,186	673,685	625,503
British India	391,136	270,592	285,470
China	239,410	226,034	234,547
Great Britain	170,274	153,271	164,840
Kwantung Province	157,033	131,447	150,439
Germany	115,220	131,390	133,533
Australia	128,396	122,840	130,494
Dutch Indies	103,077	103,775	112,033
Canada	63,929	55,669	66,498
St. Settlements	39,872	35,873	37,404
France	24,545	27,309	24,006
Asiatic Russia	23,883	24,562	21,916
French Indo-China	24,519	33,179	20,355
Egypt	31,958	24,633	20,340
Switzerland	21,819	18,095	19,940
Siam	14,358	22,260	19,067
Philippines	18,714	17,841	16,342
Belgium	14,220	14,318	14,497
Sweden	13,948	10,889	10,767

(In thousands of yen)

Changes in the Destinations of Japanese Exports

THE world war deeply affected world economic circles, and Japan was not immune. Her trade relations with foreign countries have undergone a radical change from a geographical point of view. During the twenty years before the war the Asiatic countries headed the list in the Japanese export trade, but at the end of the world war the export to South and North America had gradually increased, and approached the figures for the Asiatic countries, and since the war it has quite superceded them. Recently the trade with the United States, Canada, and Mexico alone has quite outstripped the trade with the whole of Asia. The export to Europe had made up twenty-three per cent. of the entire foreign trade, but during and after the war, it considerably decreased, so that in 1927 it made up but 7.4 per cent. In 1928 it recovered to 8.1 per cent. On the other hand, the export to Africa and South America has made a considerable increase. The export to South America increased to 0.82 per cent. in 1926, to 1.04 in 1927 and to 1.07 per cent. in 1928, while the export to Africa increased to 2.11 per cent. in 1926 and to 2.57 per cent. in 1927 falling back to 2.22 per cent. in 1928. Detailed figures are given in the following table :

	Average in 1909-1913		Average in 1919-1922 (in thousands of yen)		Average in 1924-1926	
Asia	205,288	41.4 %	766,630	45.7 %	887,012	43.2 %
Europe	114,308	23.1 ,,	138,765	8.7 ,,	152,358	7.4 ,,
S. & N. America	159,872	32.3 ,,	683,970	40.3 ,,	913,405	44.4 ,,
Others	16,215	3.2 ,,	87,694	5.8 ,,	99,676	5.0 ,,
Total	495,683	100.0 ,,	1,677,062	100.0 ,,	2,052,451	100.0 ,,
	1926		1927 (in thousands of yen)		1928	
Asia	903,416	44.2 ,,	844,534	42.0 ,,	834,934	42.3 ,,
Europe	129,421	6.3 ,,	147,892	7.4 ,,	160,345	8.1 ,,
North America	890,103	43.5 ,,	866,749	43.5 ,,	858,598	43.6 ,,
South America	16,831	0.8 ,,	20,886	1.0 ,,	21,130	1.1 ,,
Africa	43,154	2.1 ,,	51,235	2.6 ,,	43,924	2.2 ,,
Australia	61,802	3.1 ,,	61,022	3.1 ,,	53,021	2.7 ,,
Total	2,044,428	100.0 ,,	1,992,317	100.0 ,,	1,971,955	100.0 ,,

The expansion of Japan's economic power during the world war has favourably affected her foreign trade, and at present there is no country in the world which has no tradal relations with her. As regards the amount of the trade with each country, a considrable change was witnessed before and after the war. The following table compares the tradal relations with foreign countries between 1909-1913 and 1919-1923:

	Average in 1909-1913 (in thousands of yen)	(index number)	Average in 1919-1923	(index number)
China	104,152	100	350,051	336
Hongkong	26,398	100	62,653	237
British India	21,395	100	118,091	552
Straits Settlements	7,670	100	25,914	338
Dutch Indies	3,884	100	61,355	1,580
Asiatic Russia	3,106	100	24,607	792
Philippines	5,078	100	21,233	418
Siam	1,142	100	3,938	345
Great Britain	27,872	100	67,374	242
France	46,824	100	55,601	119
Germany	11,485	100	2,131	19
Italy	18,912	100	4,591	24
Holland	591	100	2,753	465
Sweden	96	100	438	456
Spain	321	100	513	159
Turkey	126	100	712	565
United States	154,231	100	645,477	419
Canada	4,404	100	17,590	3,994
Peru	155	100	2,008	1,296
Australia	7,547	100	35,972	477
Egypt	918	100	15,188	1,654
South Africa	10,741	11,640	11,694	
Asiatic Russia	5,299	7,776	11,197	
Argentine	6,333	9,528	6,970	
Holland	2,496	3,387	6,914	
Hawaii	6,700	6,894	6,466	
East Africa	—	—	6,426	
Italy	5,251	3,865	6,190	
Siam	9,270	11,146	5,763	
Uruguay	—	—	4,680	
French Indo-China	6,206	5,873	4,112	
Turkey	4,234	2,947	3,439	
New Zealand	2,945	3,347	3,097	
Brazil	1,597	1,250	1,982	
Chile	1,926	2,063	1,884	
Belgium	1,168	2,205	1,869	
Peru	1,951	1,222	1,785	
Denmark	608	1,388	1,580	
Mexico	1,145	1,265	1,312	
Switzerland	495	1,416	1,279	
Russia	44	869	1,197	
Spain	950	836	862	
Sweden	468	497	812	
Norway	28	59	717	
Cuba	712	1,061	611	
Austria	352	273	104	
Poland	2,501	7	11	
Czechoslovakia	5	5	9	
Portugal	8	5	9	

It will be seen that the United States and China occupy the same position in Japan's trade as they did before the war, while France has receded from third to seventh place, and Germany and Italy have fallen to far lower positions, the trade with Germany having been reduced from ¥11,000,000 to ¥2,000,000, and the trade with Italy from ¥18,000,000 to ¥4,600,000. British India, the Dutch Indies, the Philippines, and Australia have shown notable increases. The commodities exported to these countries are brocade fabrics, cotton yarns and fabrics, silk fabrics, etc. The trade with Siam, Sweden and Peru does not yet amount to much, but its expansion is worthy of notice. The following table shows the value of exports to the different countries during the last three years

	1926 (in thousands of yen)	1927	1928
United States	860,880	833,804	826,141
China	421,861	334,183	373,141
British India	155,951	167,580	146,006
Kwantung Province	99,606	91,270	110,190
Dutch Indies	74,745	82,581	73,414
France	42,411	54,045	63,408
Great Britain	59,493	64,929	58,904
Hongkong	52,973	66,528	66,204
Australia	51,611	50,566	43,566
Philippines	27,821	32,834	29,834
Canada	24,753	27,401	27,401
Egypt	23,198	29,006	23,006
Straits Settlements	41,497	36,657	20,657
Germany	8,131	10,612	12,612

As shown in the above table, the destinations of Japanese goods remain the same as immediately after the war. The trade with Germany is increasing with the economic recovery of that country. The trade with France is also increasing owing to the increase of her export of silk, which gives her much purchasing power. The trade with Asiatic Russia is also increasing with the stabilization of Russia. The opening of markets in East Africa and Uruguay should also be noted.

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Ups and Downs of the Trade Ports

WHEN Japan first began trade with foreign countries in 1859, concluding commercial treaties, only five ports were opened—Yokohama, Kobe, Nagasaki, Hakodate and Niigata. Since then in proportion to the expansion of her natural resourses and international commerce, the number of ports has gradually increased till there are forty-two at present. But the greater part of the foreign trade, engrossing about 90% of the total for imports and exports, is handled at Kobe, Yokohama, Osaka, Nagoya and Moji. The following table shows the total for imports and exports of the respective ports during 1926 :

Kobe	¥1,510,145,000
Yokohama ...	1,356,639,000
Osaka	707,312,000
Nagoya	135,107,000
Moji	124,603,000
Wakamatsu ..	50,911,000
Yokkaichi	44,646,000
Nagasaki .	35,639,000
Shimizu	33,667,000
Otaru	22,972,000
Tokuyama	20,744,000

THE PORT OF YOKOHAMA.—When the port of Yokohama was opened in 1859, the total value of its commerce amounted to only ¥1,120,000, but owing to its advantages as a natural port and to the rapid progress of the national power after the Restoration of Meiji, its foreign trade gradually prospered. Especially after the Japanese-Russian War, prosperity expressed itself remarkably in Yokohama's trade, the total sum before the war (about 1902) of about two hundred million yen surpassing three hundred million yen after the war (1905). The tendency continued through successive years and in 1915, its trade amounted to about four hundred and fifty million yen and then to the enormous sum of one billion five hundred million yen in 1920.

The facilities of the harbour, however, were almost entirely destroyed by the great earthquake in 1923. The trade declined immediately, and the total was suddenly reduced to one billion one hundred million yen. But the work of revival of the devastated port has since progressed so rapidly that its trade amounted to some ¥1,356,610,000 in 1928.

The port of Yokohama is only about 19 miles from Tokyo, and the development of industry and communications in the districts that feed the port, the Middle and the North-eastern Districts of Japan proper has a great deal to do with the prosperity of the port. The imports into this port are cotton, sugar, flour, iron, wool, hemp and various other kinds of goods, more than half of which are consumed in Tokyo and Yokohama and their vicinities and the rest in scattered districts.

Raw silk, the chief export of the port, comes from Nagano, Gumma and Fukushima Prefectures ; habutae from Fukui and Fukushima Prefectures ; and cotton yarn form Tokyo Prefecture.

THE PORT OF KOBE.—The port of Kobe has made epoch-making progress, passing through the three stages marked by great wars—the Japanese-Chinese, the Japanese-Russian and the World War. In 1893, the year before the Japanese-Chinese War, the total sum of the trade amounted to only about sixty-six million yen, which increased to some one hundred and sixty-two million yen in 1897, after the war. Since then it has developed year by year, amounting to over three hundred million yen in 1905, after the Japanese-Russian War and to over one billion yen in 1917 owing to the unprecedented activity of all kinds of industry stimulated by the outbreak of the World War. After that it made a new record and reached the immense sum of one billion six hundred million yen in 1919. Though trade was affected for a few years by the world-wide business depression after the World War, Kobe tided over the slump, and was rather favoured by the ruin of Yokohama in the great earthquake disaster of 1923, for not a little of the trade which had hitherto been carried on at Yokohama was transferred to Kobe, the silk trade being the most important. Moreover, the perfection of various commercial organs and harbour facilities helped to bring more goods to the port, the total sum of its trade amounting to over one billion nine hundred million yen in 1925. Thus Kobe, placed under Yokohama for a long time as the second port in Japan, has developed into the first since the great earthquake disaster. Other reasons for its prominence may be considered. Tokyo, the background of Yokohama, was at first the economic and political centre of Japan and was the most prosperous city in the country, but the economic centre has recently shifted to Osaka, leaving Tokyo important only as the political centre. Osaka is exceedingly active both in production and consumption, while Tokyo, being a great consumer rather than a producer, is far behind Osaka in industry. For these reasons Kobe has come to show a greater rate of increase in trade as compared with Yokohama.

The chief exports of Kobe are cotton fabrics, raw silk, silk fabrics, knitted goods, marine products, etc. First among the imports is ginned cotton, followed by wool, woollen fabrics, iron, bean cakes, raw rubber, timber, etc.

THE PORT OF OSAKA.—Next to the port of Kobe, Osaka has undergone the most remarkable change. In the beginning, its trade amounted to hardly 1/40 of that of Yokohama. Since 1900, however, its trade has developed tremendously and is now some 40% of that of Yokohama. Though Osaka is only twenty miles from Kobe, the greatest open port of the country, and is deficient in some harbour, facilities its prospects are very promising because of its paramount industry. Accordingly even ocean liners bound for Kobe, have come to extend their course up the bay to this port.

The principal exports of the port of Osaka are cotton yarn, cotton fabrics, knitted goods, refined sugar, glassware, foreign and Japanese paper, iron-ware and so forth. The chief imports are sugar, rice, soya-beans, timber, iron, glass, industrial medicine, etc. Generally an excess of exports has been shown every year.

THE PORT OF NAGOYA.—Notwithstanding the comparatively recent establishment of the port in 1907 and the small amount of trade, less than 200,000 yen in the beginning, Nagoya has become the fourth port of Japan during a period of twenty years or so, owing to the recent conspicuous development of commerce and industry in this intermediate city between Tokyo and Osaka.

As soon as the World War broke out and stimulated the development of the trade of this country, large coean-going vessels began to touch at this port, and their number increased day by day. The commerce and industry of Nagoya, favoured by the excellency of the position, the perfection of means of communication and the abundance of raw materials, made still further progress as the result of the World War and the Great Earthquake in the Kwanto District. Meanwhile, a great many workshops were newly erected or enlarged, and many of them were changed from individual management into organized companies or enterprises on a large scale.

The principal industry of Nagoya and vicinity is the cotton spinning and weaving industry. Other manufactures, such as pottery, glass, flour, wooden utensils, watches, cloth, etc., are being turned out with abundant and cheap supply of electricity and are showing satisfactory results.

The principal imports of the port of Nagoya are rice, sugar, timber, coal, raw cotton, iron, wool, etc., all raw materials. The chief exports are cotton fabrics, china, beer, cement, etc., generally speaking, worked up articles.

Though work on the third expansion scheme for the port was completed in 1926, its inconvenience and narrowness have come to be felt keenly by ships entering and leaving the port. Consequently a fourth expansion scheme was planned and work was immediately started. The scheme covers seven years and calls for an expenditure of ¥10,200,000. When the work is completed, trade will be considerably facilitated.

THE PORT OF MOJI.—The port of Moji is a good natural harbour situated at the northern end of the Kyushu Districts and on the southern coast of the Strait of Kwammon, the entrance to the Inland Sea. Since it was first opened in 1890 as a special port for the export of five articles including coal, its trade has progressed very rapidly, amounting to more than thirty million yen in 1909. Owing to the vigorous activity of the industries of Japan proper, especially those of Northern Kyushu, caused by the World War, the overseas trade of the port of Moji grew in leaps and bounds, amounting to over one hundred and twenty-five million yen in 1920. The trade, however, has been somewhat affected by the general depression in business, and at present stands at one hundred million yen or so. The industries in the neighbourhood of Moji are agriculture, mining and manufacturing. The last mentioned is prosperous because of the copious production of coal in the neighbourhood.

The whole tract of land along the coast from Moji to Wakamatsu is a flourishing industrial centre, lined with a number of factories, including the Yawata Iron Works and cement, fertilizer, flour, steel, nail, beer, glass, and cotton spinning plants. Their output is enormous and Moji presents the appearance of a representative port of western Japan with good prospects for the future. The chief imports are cotton, sugar, bean-cake, wheat and stibnite, and the main exports are refined sugar, cement, grey shirtings, newsprint paper and flour. The import exceeds the export year after year.

THE PORT OF NAGASAKI.—Nagasaki, the oldest of all the trade ports of Japan, was engaged in commerce with the Dutch, Portuguese and Chinese for a long time, especially with the last mentioned, as they were the nearest neighbours, and prospered as a great trade port next in importance to Yokohama and Kobe in the earlier part of the Meiji era.

As it is situated in a somewhat remote part of the country, detached from the main line of railway and has, at the same time, a very narrow hinterland, there is in it no large industrial enterprise worthy of mention except the Mitsubishi Dockyard. Its prosperity is threatened by other ports, as it is seldom visited by large vessels except for loading coal, which is produced abundantly in the neighbourhood. Under the circumstances, it is hard to expect an increase of foreign trade for this port.

Movement for the Liberty of Trading in Japan

The Japan Federation of Associations for Liberty of Trading

ON January 14, 1928, the Associations for Liberty of Trading in Osaka and Tokyo held an inaugural ceremony simultaneously in both places, thus creating the Federation of the Associations for Liberty of Trading in Japan. Like associations were soon established in Kyoto, Kobe and Nagoya, which all joined the Federation. The basis of the Federation has been thus solidified and the movement has come to be recognised throughout the country. Later similar organizations were established in Moji, Aomori, and Dairen. Besides the above eight important cities, several cities are planning to creat like organizations.

The Federation has for its object communication among the associations themselves, and between them and similar organizations in foreign countries and the realisation of the fundamental principle of the liberty of trading. As a first step the Federation has been publishing, since October last year, a monthly magazine called "Liberty of Trading." Even before the publication of the magazine, the Federation had taken various measures for the realisation of its object, such as the holding of lecture meetings, the presentation of opinions regarding the tariff on luxuries, meetings for the exchange of opinions regarding iron and timber duties, a movement against the imposition of a tariff on knitted goods in Great Britain, an investigation of the tariff on rag-rugs in the United States, a movement for the abolition of the tariff on gold glaze, the distribution of pamphlets explaining the liberty of trade, and the collection of articles on the same topic. The Osaka Association elected a committee for the investigation of industries under the direction of Dr. Takayanagi, which started an investigation into the influence exerted by the protective tariff upon the development of various industries. Data on iron and timber had already been published in the form of pamphlets. In addition to these, there have already been issud by the Federation and Associations over ten other sorts of pamphlets.

This year the subjects engaging the attention of the Federation and the Associations have suddenly increased, the most important of them being the revision of the commercial treaty between Japan and China, the boycott of Japanese goods in China, tariff revision in the United States, investigation of the taxes on important products, and the tariffs on wheat, cotton yarn, rayon, iron and steel, dyes and films, the bonded factory law, etc. The government appointed a tariff investigation committee in connection with the lifting of the gold embargo, and appointed as one of the committee members Mr. Tetsujiro Shitachi, standing director of the Federation. Thus the Federation's stand on the tariff policy is competently represented.

Recently Mr. Uyeda, Director of the Tokyo Association, and Messrs. Takayanagi, Kishimoto and Taguchi, of the Osaka Association, taking advantage of the opportunity offered by their trips abroad, investigated the question of co-operation with associations in Europe and America. In this way the Federation enters its third year with fresh vigour and hopes.

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Lifting of the Gold Embargo

ON the 12th of September, 1919, when Mr. K. Shoda held the portfolio of Minister of Finance in the Terauchi Ministry, the embargo was first placed on the shipment of gold and since then for some thirteen years the ban has remained untouched. Several attempts, it is true, have been made during this period to remove it, but they have all proved abortive.

The removal of this ban was first made a question about June, 1924, during the Kato Ministry, when Mr. Hamaguchi, the present Premier, filled the post of Finance Minister. When the Kato Ministry was formed, New York exchange improved to 40¾ dollars, and seemed to be following an upward trend, but it slumped, for the foreign trade for the first half of the year showed very discouraging results, and the excess of imports exceeded 660 million yen. The latter half, when in other years exports invariably become active showed no satisfactory result, owing to the civil strife in China and consequent falling off of exports to that country. Thus the excess of exports during the latter half amounted to only 18 million yen. The invisible export also declined considerably.

Under these circumstances New York exchange fell to the record low of 38½ dollars on October 18, 1924, a fall of 22 per cent. from par. This weak condition continued till about February the next year. There then arose loud cries for the removal of the gold embargo for the purpose of bolstering up exchange. This measure, however, did not find favour with the Government, which was disinclined to take any measure likely to seriously affect the economy of the country, though later on it realized the necessity of doing something about exchange. Owing to speculative buying of the Yen in Shanghai, the rate rallied to 41½ dollars in April, and until about September it hovered round about 40 dollars.

To improve the situation recourse was had to the shipment of gold hoarded by the Government to the United States, and the first shipment was effected on September 20. This new step taken by the Government was interpreted in foreign markets as the prelude to the lifting of the gold embargo. The exchange steadily improved and toward the end of 1925, it rose to 43½ dollars, and to 46 dollars in April the next year.

In June 1925, Mr. Hamaguchi was succeeded in office by Mr. Hayami, who died three months later and was in his turn succeeded by Mr. Kataoka. No Finance Minister since, except Mr. J. Inouye, the present Minister, has been so intent upon the removal of the ban on gold or has had the support of the public.

Upon his assumption of the post of Finance Minister, the first step taken by Mr. Kataoka was the resumption of the shipment of the gold hoarded by the Government, which had been suspended for some time The effect was instantaneous, for exchange jumped up to 49 dollars. As preparatory steps for the removal of the embargo, he carried out the improvement of the sinking fund system, retrenchment in the budget, the second readjustment of taxation, the lowering of the interest rate, adjustment of the earthquake bills, readjustment of the banking situation and the relief of the sericultural and silk reeling interests.

Being too ardently bent upon his aim, Mr. Kataoka failed to use necessary caution, for during the debate in the Diet on the question of the adjustment of the earthquake bills, a slip of the tongue on the part of the Finance Minister led to great banking disturbances in the spring of 1926. The opportunity for the removal of the gold embargo was thus lost to the country for some time.

The Wakatsuki Ministry, which was a prolongation of the Kato Ministry, collapsed during the banking disturbances and was succeeded by the Tanaka Government. Under this Ministry, which lasted for two years, the question of the gold embargo was rather neglected by the Government, but not by the public, for among enlightened circles the problem had begun to be seriously studied.

In June, 1928, a round table conference was held in Osaka by the financiers and business men of the Kansai distircts on the subject of the removal of gold embargo at the instance of the economic departments of the Osaka Asahi and the Osaka Mainichi. Those present unexpectedly agreed in thier demand for the removal of the ban on free gold at as early a date as possible. All this while exchange suffered violent fluctuations, but general preparations for the removal of the embargo steadily went on.

When the present Ministry was formed in June, 1929, the exchange tsood at the 43 dollar mark. In his statement published at the assumption of office, Mr. Hamaguchi, the Prime Minister, emphasized his intention to practise retrenchment in governmental expenditures, adjustment of government bonds, and the removal of the embargo on the free shipment of gold, and his annuouncement was warmly received by the public.

In two months exchange recovered to 46 dollars, and one month later to 47 dollars. The economic and financial policies of the present Cabinet are all focussed on one point, the removal of the gold embargo. The economic situation of the country is now evolving favourably for this purpose and so long as no unforeseen incident takes place, it appears that the removal of the gold embargo will simply be a question of time.

Insurance

LIFE INSURANCE

IF the purchaser of insurance has the same degree of knowledge regarding every seller of insurance, then the amount of insurance sold by every company is in direct proportion to the selling capacity of the company. In other words, the more capital a company has, the more rationalised its selling method is and the greater selling power it has. This convinces us that big companies are gradually getting a greater share of the business, as shown by the following returns, which classify the forty-two national life insurance companies according to policies issued since 1928 :

Value of policies	No. of companies
Over seven hundred million yen	1
Over six hundred million yen	2
Over five hundred million yen	1
Over four hundred million yen	1
Over three hundred million yen	1
Over two hundred million yen	3
Over one hundred million yen	10
Under one hundred million yen	23

The small companies whose policies fall under one hundred million yen are classified as follows :

Value of policies	No. of companies
Over ninety million yen	2
Over eighty million yen	4
Over seventy million yen	2
Over sixty million yen	3
Over fifty million yen	1
Over forty million yen	3
Over thirty million yen	2
Over twenty million yen	2
Over ten million yen	4
Under ten million yen	—

The total of policies issued by the forty-two companies stood at ¥6,540,000,000 at the end of 1928. Dividing these companies into three groups, i.e., the five big companies, each issuing policies to the amount of over four hundred million yen ; the four second-rate companies, each issuing policies to the amounts of from two hundred million to four hundred million yen ; and the small companies whose policies do not exceed two hundred million yen, the following table shows the percentage of the amounts of their policies against the total amount of all policies :

	Total amount of the policies issued by each group of companies	
The five big companies	¥2,958,280,000	45%
The second-rate companies	1,022,940,000	16%
The small companies	2,558,870,000	39%

The above returns show that five out of the forty-two companies issue nearly one half of the total amount of policies. The following returns show the percentage of the three groups against the total amount of new policies in 1928 :

	Value of new policies	
The five big companies	¥606,350,000	45%
The second-rate companies	144,520,000	11%
The small companies	579,720,000	44%

Of the new policies, too, the five big companies are responsible for nearly one half of the total amount.

The total value of policies at the end of 1928 shows an increase of ¥570,970,000 over that at the beginning of the same year, allotted to the three groups as follows :

	Increase in value of policies	Percentage against total sum of increased policies
The five big companies	¥406,230,000	71%
The second-rate companies	67,410,000	19%
The small companies	97,330,000	17%

The above tables give roughly a quantitative analysis of the forty-two companies. Now let us observe the companies from the qualitative point of view. First of all let us consider the percentage of the amount of forfeiture and cancellation. During 1928 the total amount of forfeiture and cancellation reached ¥740,230,000, classified as follows :

The five big companies	¥180,980,000	24%
The second-rate companies	106,390,000	15%
The small companies	452,870,000	61%

The following returns give the percentage of the three groups against the total amount of forfeiture and cancellation on new and past policies :

	New policies	Past policies
The five big companies	31.4%	6.9%
The second-rate companies	57.0%	11.1%
The small companies	68.1%	18.4%

NOTE : In calculating the amounts of forfeiture and cancellation on new policies, percentages over 100% caused by special circumstances have been excluded.

Some of the small companies show forfeiture and cancellation to the remarkable percentage of 282.2% and even 636.6% ; showing how miserable the condition of the small companies is.

The selection of policies is very strictly made by the big companies, and naturally the policy holders of the big companies are superior, while the greater portion of the holders of policies in the small companies are those who, having been excluded in the selection of the big companies, have begun to cause some fear for their longevity. From the point of view of a big company, these contracts are unsound policies with a high rate of mortality. In this way the first rate companies are gradually advancing both qualitatively and quantitatively, while the small companies are declining not only in quantity, but also in quality.

As regards the profits of the life insurance companies, they are divided into the following three categories :

1. Surplus after deducting business expenses.
2. Surplus after meeting death claims.
3. Surplus interest.

With ever increasing competition among the rival companies, even the first rate companies can not expect a surplus after business expenses have been deducted, while a surplus after meeting death claims is not to be expected according to the statistics of the past ten years. Then the surplus interest is the only source of profit of an insurance company.

The total assets of the forty-two insurance companies throughout the country were estimated at ¥1,304,000,000 at the end of 1928. Of this amount the fund really operated was ¥1,246,000,000, or 95.6 per cent. of the total assets. This percentage may be classified as 6% real estate, 17.2% deposits and savings, 54.5% negotiable bonds and 22.2% loans. It will be seen that the valuation and operation of 76.7 per cent. of the assets will divide the companies into the healthy and the unhealthy. From the fact that unjustified loans and unhealthy investments are often resorted to by small companies, it is safe to say that the first rate big companies are making their management more and more sound, while the little companies are getting deeper and deeper into difficulties in thier business undertakings.

FIRE INSURANCE

The agreement on premiums by the fire insurance companies was in utter confusion during the last year. A conference was organised with a view to securing the strict observance of the agreement in question. In the first article of the conference rules it is stipulated that a company violating the agreement shall forfeit its deposit for joining the conference to the amount of ¥50,000. The agreement was, however, not strictly observed. The evil practice of snatching contracts was not mitigated. It is surprising that the agreement was violated even by first rate companies, including the Tokyo Marine, the Kobe Marine, the Osaka Marine, the Tokyo Fire, the Kyodo Fire, the Meiji Fire, the Chiyoda Fire, etc. In spite of the breaking of the agreement on premiums, however, fire insurance companies have in general prospered during the current year. The number of fires was greater than during the previous year, but the smaller number of big fires resulted in satisfactory profits for the fire insurance companies.

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Shipping on the Pacific Ocean

In the Midst of a Whirling Revolution

SHIPPING on the Pacific has successively encountered, during the first half of 1929, a series of revolutionary phases, such as the unprecedented drop in freight rates on lumber from America to Japan from $10/9 to $6, the drastic reduction by 33 per cent. of the tariff on Japanese raw silk imported into the United States and the remarkably shortened voyage across the Pacific, which now takes 14 or 15 days instead of the 20 or more formerly consumed by Japanese trampers. What are the real causes for these changes? They are due to the appearance of motor-ships and the rapid increase of those plying on the Pacific Ocean. Motor-ships, with their characteristic high speed at lower expenditure, have plunged shipping on the Pacific into a whirling revolution.

In this connection, let us review how the building plan for motor-ships in Japan developed. Prompted by the competition in building gigantic ocean greyhounds on the Atlantic, the carriers on the Pacific have followed suit, but on the Pacific the construction of vessels is solely from the economical view-point, hence the dieselization. For instance the N.Y.K. Line, with the issue of debentures up to its limit, is now constructing the Asama-Maru, the Chichibu-Maru, and the Tatsuta-Maru, three 16,500 gross-ton passenger boats for the San Francisco Line and another fleet of three 11,000 gross-ton semi-cargo vessels for the Seattle Line. They are all motor-ships with speeds of over 18 knots. The O.S.K. Line, trying to improve its New York line with new vessels, has started the construction of four 10,000 d/w. diesel cargo boats and contracted with the Kishimoto Shipping Company to charter for the extended period of five years two vessels of the same type which, too, are now under construction. Therefore, it will, by the end of 1930, have a complete fleet of six diesel cargo ocean-goers with a service speed of no less than 16 knots.

Not only the liner companies above mentioned, the trampers on the Pacific are also making headlong progress in dieselization. In June, 1929, the diesel cargo-boats in Japan numbered 23, with a tonnage of 180,000 d/w. tons, whereas in January, 1928, there were only 12 with a tonnage of 96,000 d/w. tons. It will be noted, therefore, that within so short a period the number and the tonnage of motor-ships in Japan has practically doubled. In addition, plans for new construction are being published in rapid succession, among which the most noteworthy is that of the Mitsui Line, which aiming at the possession of 200,000 diesel tonnage within the coming ten years, has already completed the Hakubasan-Maru, the Shigisan-Maru, and the Hakone-san-Maru, each with a tonnage of no less than 9,000 d/w. tons and a speed of 15 knots.

With such a rapid increase in the diesel tonnage on the Pacific, it is natural that the basis of the shipping business in this field should have been thoroughly undermined and the equilibrium of the freight market entirely upset. We may cite some of the outstanding problems resulting and the new tendencies, as follows:

The tendency to favour more diesel boats:

It is a proved fact that motor-ships can run with the fuel oil of only one quarter the coal used by steamers. This results in a larger cargo carrying capacity of almost thirty percent., as fuel oil is stored in the double-bottoms of the ships and saves manning expense, as no oilers are needed. Having such merits in comparison with steamers, they can easily overcome their only demerit, the higher initial cost, and leave much advantage to the shipowners. With the increase of the motor-ships, therefore, the operating expenses have been lowered and old and inefficient vessels are bound inevitably to be driven into great difficulties. Hence the enthusiastic cry for scrapping the obsolete vessels, the existence of which is considered the greatest obstacle in the way of the healthy recovery of Japanese shipping, as in the other shipping nations of the world.

The tendency toward higher speed among the trampers:

When a steamer's sea-speed is increased, it is necessary to enlarge the bunker for coal and the tank for water, naturally encroaching upon the capacity of the cargo hold. In the case of motor-ships, however, they can get a higher speed by only increasing the number of cylinders or enlarging them and cause no disadvantage in the efficiency of the ships. Therefore owners in these days generally built motor-ships of higher speed, and the average speed of the newly built cargo boats has grown to 14 or 15 knots, while ordinary tramp steamers are voyaging at an average speed of 9 or 10 knots.

Thus the cargo vessels on the Pacific are becoming more and more efficient, not only in their carrying capacity, but also in their speed, whereby increasing the supply of cargo space to a considerable degree and forming a large factor in the recent unprecedented drop in freight rates. The following is a table of freight rates and the total tonnage, in July, each year, of ships engaged in the transportation of American timbers from the Pacific coast of North America to Japan:

	Tonnage	Freight ($) Highest	Lowest
1923	259,529	15.50	14.00
1924	176,983	10.00	8.00
1925	259.534	9.25	7.50
1926	457,980	11.00	10.00
1927	511,786	10.75	10.25
1928	450,007	8.75	8.50
1929	584,341	7.50	7.00

From the above table it is obvious that although the freight rate has been following a declining tendency in accordance with the gradual increase of the tonnage on the Pacific, the phenomenal drop in rates which occurred in July and August, this year, was entirely caused by the diesel boats on the trans-Pacific run.

In addition to these, more active participation by a number of foreign shipping companies is expected, and the Pacific, that has hitherto been left as a free stage for Japanese shipping, especially for trampers, is now becoming an arena of international shipping competition.

On the other hand, however, the movement of cargoes on the Pacific has been on the steady increase since the world war. The great war has brought about a big change in the economic life of the world, especially in Asia and the U.S.A. The activities of the American industries in and after the war have been something striking and the production has jumped with leaps and bounds, resulting in the necessity of her seeking a supply of raw materials in the Orient and finding a way to dispose of surplus production in the unexploited market of the East. The following is a table showing the marked increase of American trade with the Orient and comparing with her trade with Europe:

(All figures in thousands of dollars)

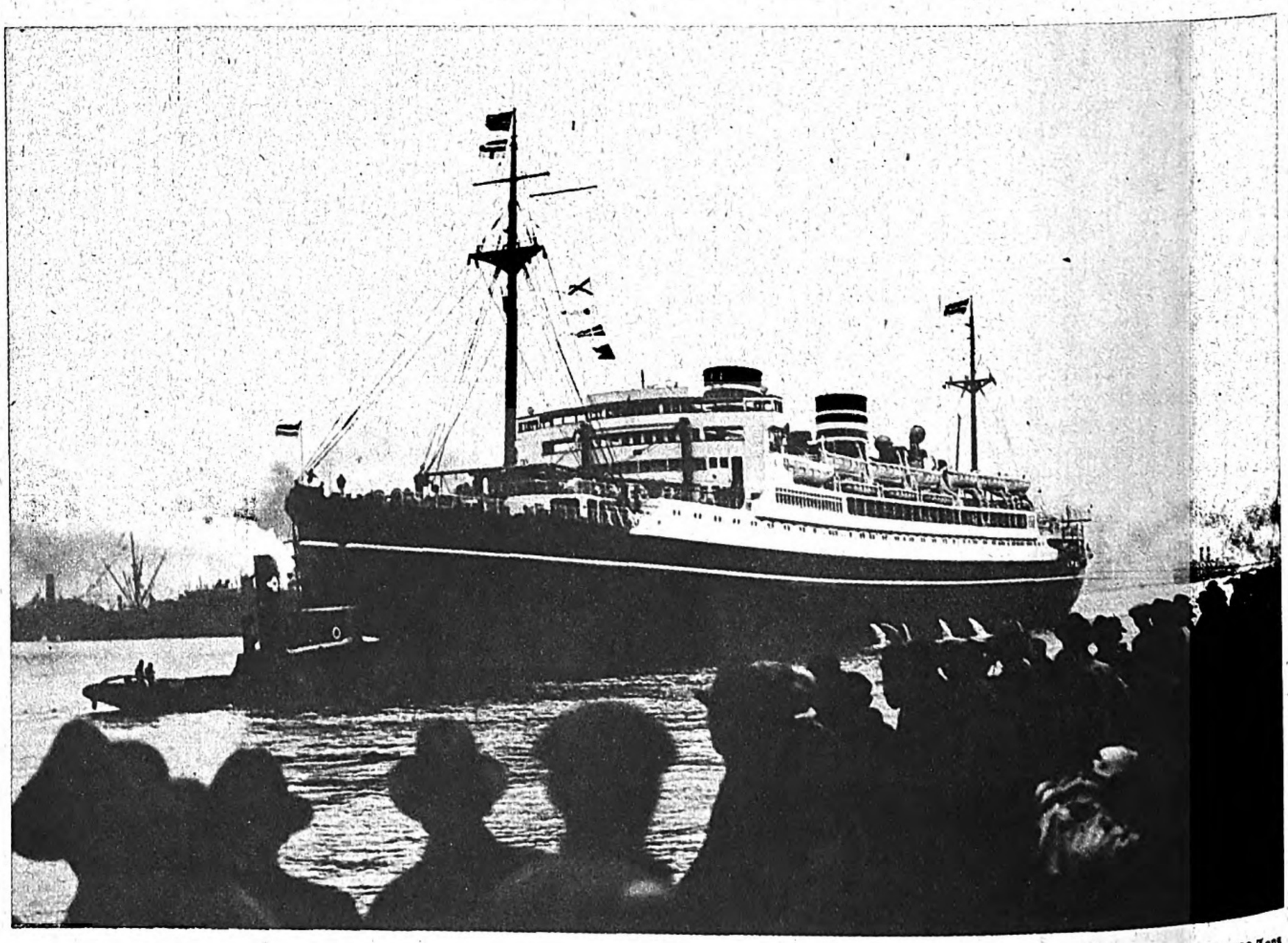
	Orient Exports	Orient Imports	Europe Exports	Europe Imports
1913	139,226	271,790	1,971,435	614,355
1916	377,735	550,86›	3,813,278	633,317
1920	861,579	1,396,677	4,466,091	1,222,843
1926	564,543	1,400,701	2,310,144	1,288,763
1926	550,605	1,256,758	2,313,772	1,277,466

The American exports to the Orient have been maintaining a preponderance even since the war, and in 1927 they had increased in value to four times the pre-war amount, while her exports to Europe had returned to almost the same level as before the war. The American imports from the Orient, though they amounted to only half the amount of her imports from Europe before the war, have increased to five times their pre-war amount and in 1926 showed such a development as to outstride her imports from Europe. This increase in American trade with the Orient is largely due to the soaring development of the productive industries in eastern states and partly to the ever increasing use of the Panama canal by cargo carriers since its opening in 1914.

Thus the center of the foreign trade of the United States is drifting westward, and the Pacific is gradually gaining ground in the world movement of cargoes. To meet this situation, therefore, a number of the shipping companies abroad are preparing to make an active advance in the Pacific, some of them endeavouring to improve the lines already established with new motor-ships and others trying to open new lines with vessels of the highest efficiency. In the routes between the western coast ports of North America, Tacoma and Seattle, or San Francisco and Los Angeles, and the Orient, the Dollar Line, under the Jones-White Act, has decided to build six vessels of 25,000 gross tons with a speed of 21 knots for the purpose of improving the round-the-world route. The Canadian Pacific Steamship Company, with the construction of the Empress of Japan, is planning to add to the Vancouver-Orient line one more 21,000 gross ton passenger boat. The Klaveness Line of Norway is reported to be going to wedge into the tramping trade of the Pacific with a fleet of six motor-ships in October this year. Against such an active advance by foreign companies the N.Y.K., with the construction of three diesel passenger boats for the San Francisco line and three diesel semi-cargo vessels for the Seattle line, is making desperate efforts to maintain Japan's stronghold in the shipping of the Pacific. The following is a table in which is shown the present shipping strength on these routes of Japan, the United States and Britain:

	Number	Tonnage
Japan		
Liners	44	319,314
Trampers	77	444,265
U.S.A.		
Liners	36	294,396
Trampers	5	34,062
Britain (including Canada)	13	124,579
Others	23	144,062

As regards the routes between the eastern coast ports of the continent, Boston, New York and Philadelphia and the Orient, the Prince Line and the Silver Line of Britain, and the Dollar Line of America, with a view to meeting the demands of the increased volume of cargo through the Panama Canal to the Orient, have decided to substitute for the present fleet new motor-ships with speeds of no less than 15 knots. According to the latest in-



The New N. Y. K. Motor Ship "Asama Maru" Recently Put on the American Run. The Liner Has a Displacement of 22,000 Tons and the Gross Tonnage of 16,000 Tons. Her Length is 584 Feet, Beam 72 Feet, Depth 42.6 Feet, and Her Loading Capacity 8,000 Tons. The Asama Maru is Equipped with Four Sets of Sulzer Diesel Engines Capable of Developing 16,000 S. H. P. in Total and a Speed of 21 Knots. The Passenger Accommodation Comprises 239 First Class, 96 Second Class, and 504 Steerage Class.

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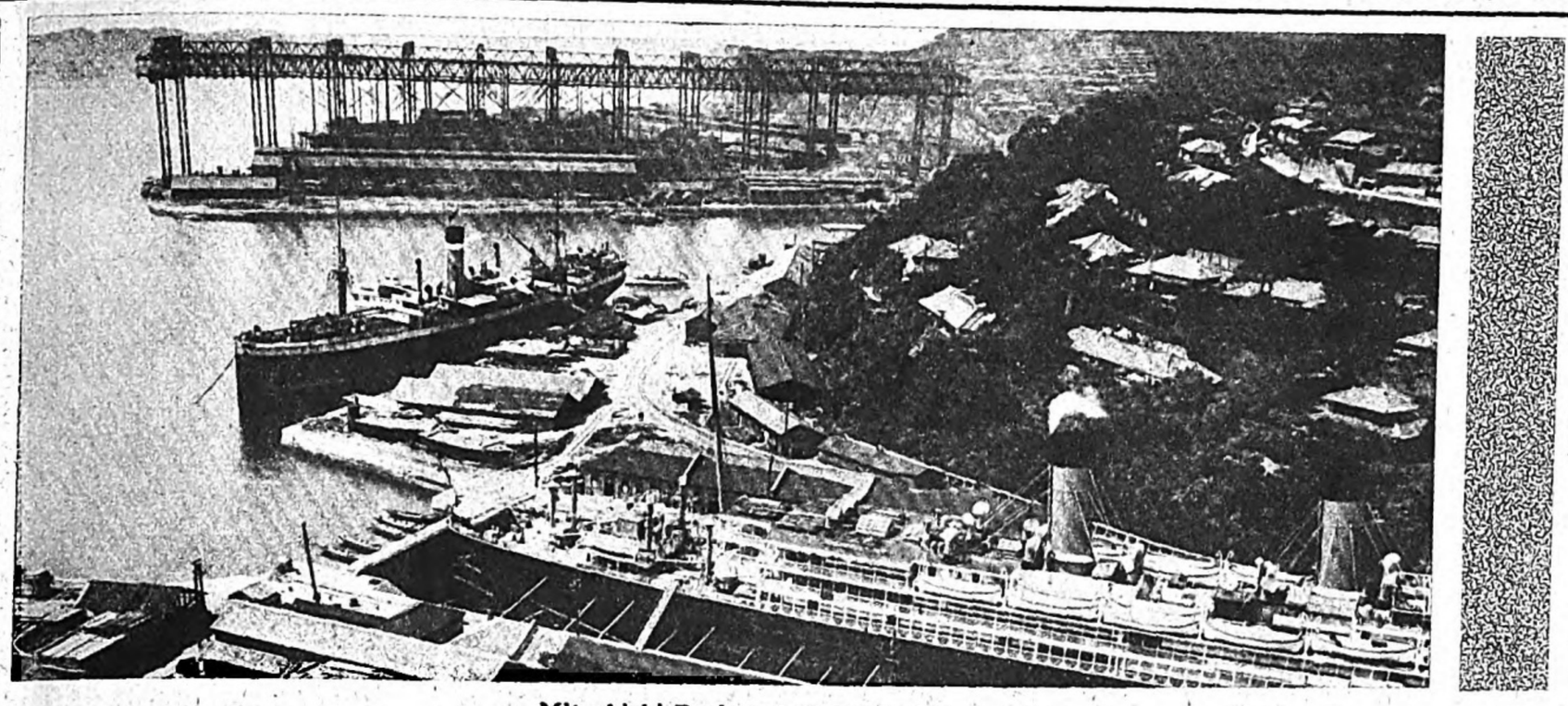

Mitsubishi Dockyard at Nagasaki

mation, the Barber Line of the ited States, with the help of the ilhelmsen Shipping Company of rway, is planning to open a new line necting New York with Shanghai h a fleet of five motor-ships. Against h marked progress by foreign panies, Japan's only counter-plan he replacement by the O.S.K. of ships on the New York line with new motor-ships with a speed of 16 ts. The following is a table show- the present strength of shipping on route according to different coun- s :

	Number	Tonnage
ritain	35	334,000
.S.A.	35	256,000
apan	29	184,000
orway	9	61,000
enmark	4	30,000

n this sphere Japan ranks third and sesses only half the tonnage of the ish. What is worse still, the ships this route are mostly third class and not stand the severe competition of ign companies.

n the Pacific the volume of the goes is, as mentioned above, on the dy increase, mostly due to the nt development of productive in- tries in the eastern part of the con- nt. Therefore, a greater portion of erican trade with the Orient goes ugh the Panama Canal and is ined to increase with capitalistic duction in the United States of erica. The following table shows increase of cargo movements ugh the Panama Canal :

(Figures represent cargo tons expressed in thousands.)

	(1925)	(1926)	(1927)
From East Coast of U.S.A.			
To Asia	1,261	1,576	1,634
To Australasia	717	796	701
From Asia and Australasia			
To East Coast of N. America	861	957	1,126

The foreign companies, awakened by these facts, are making thorough preparations, while on our side the O.S.K. has set forth to improve the fleet on this route, while all the rest watch idly with folded arms.

The transportation of timber from the Pacific coast to Japan, which is the mainstay of the Japanese trampers and by which is sometimes absorbed almost one fourth of the total tonnage of Japan, is in a bad way owing to the appearance of the diesel standard in the freight market and pessimistic views regarding the future importation of American timbers into Japan. In such a state of affairs, even motor-ships of the highest efficiency are hard hit and the continuance of voyages by obsolete vessels is a sheer impossibility. Under such adverse conditions, why not improve the lines through the Panama Canal. Through the Panama there is a large flow of cargoes. With the construction of motor-ships and with a more active advance into the great oceans, other than the Pacific, the present difficulty can be overcome and the future of Japan's shipping assured.

Revival of the Shipbuilding Industry

URING the great war the volume of water-borne cargoes through- the world increased with leaps and nds and world shipping experienced prolonged period of tremendous vity. Especially in the United tes of America and Japan, the ship- g boom was most remarkable owing their neutral position in the war. ights and charter rates jumped up after day, and inquiries for ships dily increased with the advance of war. Hence the unprecedented sperity in the annals of the ship- lding industry in these countries. But the armistice in 1918 brought ut a sudden drop in the transporta- n of cargoes, and world shipping was own into a reactionary depression. a natural consequence, the number tonnage of ships newly launched oughout the world has pursued a clining tendency since 1919, as wn in the following table :

Number and tonnage of the world's w ships since 1913.

	Number	Tonnage
1913	1,280	3,188,578
1915	743	1,201,636
1916	694	1,688,080
1917	1,112	2,937,786
1918	1,866	5,447,440
1919	2,483	7,144,549
1920	1,759	5,861,668
1921	1,377	4,341,325
1922	852	2,467,084
1923	701	1,643,181
1924	924	2,247,751
1925	855	2,193,404
1926	600	1,674,977
1927	802	2,285,679
1928	869	2,699,239

The world shipbuilding reached its zenith in the boom of 1919, as is shown in the above table, and with that year as the turning point, gradually entered into the depression and reached in 1923 the bottom of inactivity. However, with the appearance of the cry for building economical vessels and scrapping obsolete steamers in the world, it has regained animation. Especially in Germany a marked recovery was achieved in 1928 with the hearty co-operation of the government and the public.

In our country, also, the shipowners finally awakened to the necessity of economical vessels, and understanding the real efficiency of diesel engines, commenced to build motorships in 1928 so eagerly that the shipbuilding industry of Japan suddenly became active again after a long spell of depression. The following table shows the number and the tonnage of the ships newly built in Japan since 1915:

	Number	Tonnage
1915	8	40,485
1916	40	141,827
1917	86	344,917
1918	171	497,467
1919	134	619,558
1920	93	433,265
1921	41	232,820
1922	16	58,420
1923	19	62,926
1924	20	63,750
1925	14	49,360
1926	15	47,539
1927	36	52,473
1928	53	109,664

Thus the shipbuilding industry in Japan is at present favoured with a fair amount of activity. Whether or not the present prosperous condition will last long is a question belonging to the future. Yet with study and investigation of the causes which made the depression so severe and its recovery so slow, we can find ways not to repeat the same blunder in the future. Below are outlined the fundamental causes underlying the prolonged depression in the shipbuilding industry.

1. The importation of second-hand vessels. Japanese shipowners, looking for immediate gain on the plea that second-hand vessels are more profitable owing to the low initial cost, imported a large number of obsolete ships from abroad, and they became like cancers preventing the healthy recovery of Japanese shipping. The following table shows the number, tonnage and value of the second-hand vessels imported into Japan since 1921 :

	Number	Tonnage	Value
1921	26	160,077	¥666,900
1922	20	118,334	487,350
1923	67	398,007	1,435,150
1924	20	110,104	521,900
1925	14	70,275	186,000
1926	44	264,519	1,146,750
1927	37	163,419	638,600
1928	29	179,109	1,006,914
Total	257	1,463,844	6,089,454

At present the total tonnage of Japanese tramps above 2,000 tons is about 3,490,000 tons, more than one third of which is in obsolete vessels imported from abroad, and this is the chief factor responsible for the long depression in Japan's shipbuilding industry.

2. High cost of construction. In Japan the self-supply of iron and steel is being eagerly advocated, and toward that object much effort has been exerted, yet it is far from realization. Japan imports a large amount of shipbuilding material, and this, together with the comparatively high wages of labour, forms the chief element in the high cost of shipbuilding. A few years ago, when the Siam government planned to construct two diesel passenger boats with length of 290 feet, tonnage of 3,200 tons d.w. and cabin accommodation for 250 persons, shipbuilders of many countries put in bids, and the following are the estimates presented, among which those offered by Japanese shipbuilders are comparatively high :

	Number of shipbuilders who applied	Lowest offer	Highest offer
France	6	87,065	166,125
Italy	6	63,400	104,000
Germany	7	89,180	120,300
Holland	4	101,650	125,000
Denmark	3	92,700	123,500
Switzerland	1	100,000	—
Japan	2	110,000	119,500
China	3	91,500	105,000
Britain	12	105,300	131,300

3. Lack of financial facilities for shipbuilding. During the war when shipping was on the highest wave of prosperity, bankers, even with slight knowledge of shipping, ventured to make enormous investments in the shipbuilding industry and realized a considerable profit, but in the wake of the boom, they failed to collect their loans to the full amount and began to regard the shipping and the shipbuilding industry as dangerous for investment. Since then they have refused to finance those who build new ships, except at high rates of interest of, say, from twenty to thirty per cent., and this is another reason for the slow recovery of the shipbuilding industry in Japan. However, when the Minseito came into power this summer, the government, considering shipping as an important invisible export, began to study in co-operation with the public the best means to revive the industry. A commission for the betterment of foreign trade, comprising many outstanding figures in the government and business circles, has been formed, in which financial facilities for shipbuilding is one of the chief subjects of discussion.

So far we have considered the causes underlying the slow recovery of the Japanese shipbuilding industry, among which stress should be laid on the first-mentioned. To-day Japan ranks third in the world in the number of ships possessed, with a total tonnage of more than 4,000,000 tons. But the quality of her ships is far inferior to that of other shipping powers. In the Lloyd's Register of latest issue, the following table is given :

Country	Tons gross Owned	Percentage of Country's Total Tonnage: Under Five Years	Five and under Ten Years	Ten and under 15 years	15 and under 20 years	20 and under 25 years	Over 25 years
Great Britain and Ireland	10,046,000	22.55	25.33	18.09	17.25	8.43	8.35
British Dominions	2,795,000	17.82	20.68	12.95	12.77	11.81	20.97
British Total	22,841,000	21.97	24.76	17.46	17.07	8.84	9.90
United States	13,592,000	4.08	29.51	39.71	9.10	9.70	9.90
Japan	4,187,000	7.91	21.86	31.77	1.05	8.31	22.10
Germany	4,058,000	24.02	39.60	5.10	15.13	8.60	12.55
France	3,303,000	8.72	34.51	14.28	14.65	11.59	13.25
Norway	3,218,000	27.19	22.21	18.16	18.28	7.89	13.27
Italy	3,215,000	16.73	21.42	12.66	2.52	10.63	29.04
Holland	2,932,000	21.18	31.86	16.10	16.78	9.07	5.01
Sweden	1,480,000	16.07	19.92	11.68	11.06	11.88	30.39
Greece	1,267,000	2.37	3.71	7.89	17.31	24.62	49.10
Spain	1,136,000	8.51	23.83	14.85	4.04	5.52	41.25
Denmark	1,033,000	16.35	32.72	15.23	15.84	7.44	17.42
Other Countries	4,145,000	14.68	9.34	10.29	10.42	15.49	36.78
Total	66,407,000	15.58	25.58	20.86	10.66	9.87	15.45

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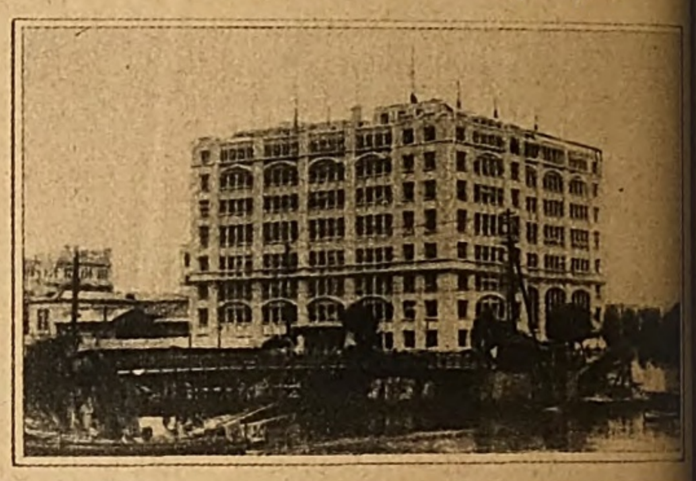

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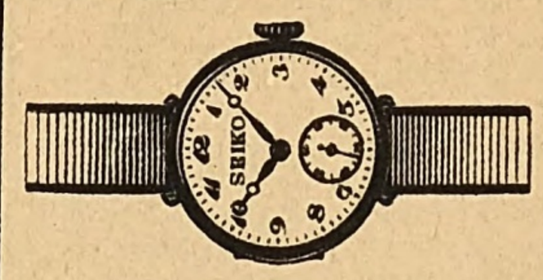

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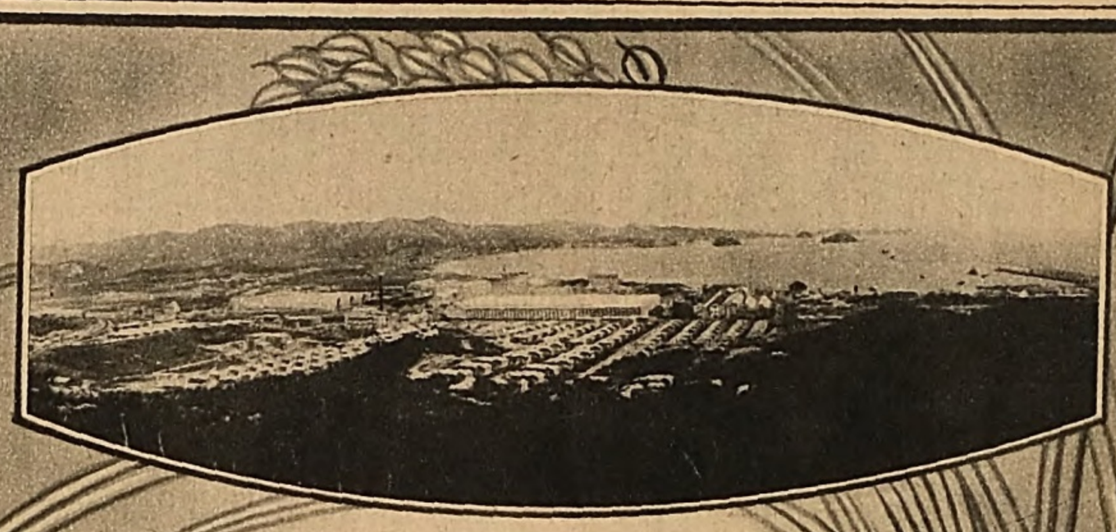

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(ESTABLISHED - - - - - 1889)

7 IMABASHI SHICHOME, OSAKA, JAPAN.

Total Assets

YEN 200,000,000

Total Amount of Assurance in Force

YEN 830,000,000

Total Number of Policies in Force

670,000

Sixth Quinquennial Bonus to Policy-holders

YEN 16,530,000

President :

SUKETARO HIROSE

BRANCH OFFICES :

Osaka, Tokyo, Kyoto, Nagoya, Fukuoka, Sendai, Kanazawa, Keijo(Seoul), Hiroshima, Sapporo.

AGENTS :

1400 in Japan, Chosen(Korea), South Manchuria, Taiwan(Formosa), Saghalien and China.

The business results of the company for the last few years have shown a marked advance. The number of new policies issued during last year shows an increase of 54.6% over the number for the year before last. The new policies issued during the first half of this year show an increase of 45.2%, as compared with those for the corresponding period of last year. The company's position as the largest life insurance company in the Orient has been assured.

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According to this table, twenty-two per cent. of Japan's ships are over twenty years old, a total tonnage of 4,187,000, and she is naturally counted one of the countries possessing a large number of so-called obsolete ships. And this is entirely due to the over-importation of second-hand vessels in and after the war.

The shipbuilders, therefore, foreseeing the effect of such over-importation upon shipbuilding and shipping industries, started in 1924 an opposition campaign, urging an increase of the import tariff on ships. Their arguments may be summed up as follows :

1. The importation of second-hand vessels makes inferior the quality of Japanese ships, for the ships imported are mostly of low grade in their classification.

2. The unlimited importation of ships invites a decline in the freight market, for the movement of cargoes allotted to Japanese ships is limited.

3. The second-hand ships, being less efficient in every respect, cannot stand the severe competition of foreign vessels of higher efficiency.

4. The importation of second-hand vessels, working against the construction of new ships, gives a severe blow to the shipbuilding industry at large.

Thus the shipbuilders, basing their opinions upon national economy, were opposed to the importation of second-hand vessels, while the shipowners, considering only their own gain, turned deaf ears and went on importing obsolete vessels. According to the quotations for import vessels then prevalent, they could buy from abroad a ship, fifteen years old but sufficiently sea-worthy, for only ¥210,000, whereas if newly constructed, a ship of the same type cost no less than ¥910,000. Under such circumstances it was of little effect, without some drastic measure being adopted, to try to stop the importation, and the tonnage showed a steady increase as the years went on. Therefore the government decided to change the import tariff heavier on ships over twenty years old from ten to twenty yen per ton and put the increased rates into effect in April, 1926.

Meanwhile the obsolete ships in Europe had been mostly disposed of and those in the market became fewer, naturally inviting a rise in quotations. The shipowners, under the double burden of the rise in quotations and the increase in the import tariff, found costs too great and began to study the construction of new ships. Thereupon dawned the present prosperity in the shipbuilding industry.

In 1928 the prosperity has returned to the shipbuilding industry, and most of the yards are enjoying a fair amount of activity. This is due to the awakening of the shipowners to the inefficiency of the obsolete vessels and the absolute necessity of superior ships capable of standing severe foreign competition. Hence the feverish craze for motorships equipped with diesel engines, and the appearance of diesel vessels in rapid succession. From the beginning of 1928, to June 1929, the diesel tonnage increased from 96,900 to 182,300 D/W. tons, and it is still following an upward trend. The following table shows the number and tonnage of ships newly launched within the last year :

Ships Newly Launched in 1928.

	Number	Tonnage
January	5	15,228
February ..	3	9,260
March	3	7,250
April	2	1,740
May	6	4,951
June	4	6,328
July	5	10,127
August	4	1,550
September ..	6	13,762
October ...	5	24,830
November .	1	2,100
December...	7	12,538
Total	53	109,664

In the first half of 1929, also, plans for new construction have been published one after another, the most noteworthy of them being for four diesel cargo liners for the O.S.K., with a tonnage of 11,000 D/W. tons, together with two of the same type to be constructed by the Kishimoto S.S. Company. The Yamashita S.S. Company, the Toyo S.S. Company and the Kokusai S.S. Company, too, have decided to supplant their present fleets with diesel tonnage. Thus the shipbuilding industry in Japan has fully revived and is enjoying remarkable activity. At present the government is considering ways to finance shipbuilding as a means to encouraging the shipping industry. When a definite plan is formed and proper financing is begun, the future of Japan's shipbuilding industry will become brighter.

Marine Insurance

THE Japanese marine insurance industry in 1928 was characterized by two outstanding phenomena, one being the increase in the rate of the premium on hulls and the other a conciliatory attitude among the insurance companies with a view to showing a common front against the demands of the shipowners.

The underwriters in the London market, seizing the opportunity offered by the fact that their contracts for reinsurance with eight Japanese companies, the Tokyo Kaijo, the Taisho, the Fuso, the Mitsubishi, the Teikoku, the Kobe, the Nippon, and the Osaka Marine Insurance companies expired at the end of 1927, demanded an increase in the reinsurance rate for the reason that their business was unprofitable because of the many disasters at sea among Japanese ships. With this demand at hand the Japanese insurers met and organized the Marine Insurance Association to cope with the situation and decided on a drastic increase of from thirty to fifty per cent. in the premium on hulll risk and put it into effect in reinsuring ships whose contracts matured in February, 1928. The following table gives a comparison of the new and old rates on hulls :

Figures are expressed in Yen.

Tonnage (d/w. tons)	Year of Construction	Insured Amount	Old Rate	New Rate
2,400	1888	87,000	4.47	9.15
5,690	1907	300,000	3.30	4.50
6,911	1902	310,000	4.15	5.50
3,803	1896	320,000	3.15	4.20
2,295	1896	100,000	4.60	7.50

The shipowners, being faced with such a burden, found themselves in difficulty and lodged a strong protest with the insurers, some asking for a drawback in case the ships got safely through the insured period and others insisting on the creation of mutual insurance among themselves. But these attempts failed in the end and produced no substantial result.

According to returns published by the Marine Insurance Association, the total amount of premiums received for 1928, the first year after the increase in rates, was ¥15,500,000 and the claims reported were as follows :

	Number of Accidents	Number of Total Losses
Stranding	334	22
Sunken	10	9
Fire	44	—
Collisions with Ships	503	3
Other Collisions ..	254	—
Damages from Ice..	40	—
Other Damages ...	72	—
Total	1,257	34

The amount paid on total losses was estimated at something like ¥7,390,000 and this, together with the payments on other damages, formed seventy or seventy-five per cent. of the premiums paid, which was by far greater than the percentage for other countries. Therefore it is expected that the increase in premium rates is inevitable.

Thus the marine insurance companies, united in a common cause, forsook their former competitive attitude among themselves and became very conciliatory with each other. In cargo insurance the eight insurance companies mentioned above (the Fuso Insurance Co. excluded and the Yokohama Fire Insurance Co. added) adopted the pool system in so far as the transportation of Hokkaido and Sag... lien timbers and Formosan and Kore... rice was concerned and have extend... it to the transportation of crabs fr... Kamchatka this year owing to t... favourable result of the new attem... With the formation of this pool syst... the premium rates agreed upon w... increased one after another whene... they were altered, inviting compli... on the part of shipowners. Howe... as it is an endeavour of the insure... rescue themselves from the mire w... which they have been plunged by seve... competition in the past, their attem... to increase the premium should b... looked upon with sympathy and allow... to go forward for the healthy recov... of the marine insurance industry ... Japan.

The Aircraft Industry

THE manufacture of aircraft in this country dates from 1910. At first the Army and Navy invited aeronautic experts from France and Britain, under whom the Japanese were initiated into the art of flying and the manufacture of flying machines. Thus for some years following aircraft were manufactured exclusively by the Army and Navy. But as the new enterprise improved technically, a policy was launched by the government for bringing private interests into it. Consequently in 1918 there came into existence the first private manufacturer of flying machines, the Kishi Institute of Science, in Tokyo. But it was not until the industry proved to be a paying proposition that the Mitsubishi Dockyard built the first motor at its department for internal combustion engines, and the Nakajima Airplane Manufactory started operations. The motors and fuselages produced by these two concerns were the first of the Japanese attempts at airplane construction. It took some years, however, for these private manufacturers to become reputed as competent and capable, and about 1921 they first had orders placed with them by the Army and Navy. Expansion and improvement have since come to the industry, and the Mitsubishi Flying Machine Co. and the Aichi Watch and Electric Machinery Co. have taken up the manufacture of fuselages, and the Kawasaki Dockyard is turning out motors. Below is a list of the manufacturers connected with airplanes :

FUSELAGES

Nakajima Airplane Manufactory	Ota-cho, Gumma-ken	1917
Airplane Dept., Kawasaki Dockyard	Kobe	
Kawanishi Machinery Works	Kobe	
Aichi Watch & Electric Machinery Co.	Nagoya	
Mitsubishi Flying Machine Co.	Nagoya	
Ishikawajima Airplane Manufactory	Tokyo	

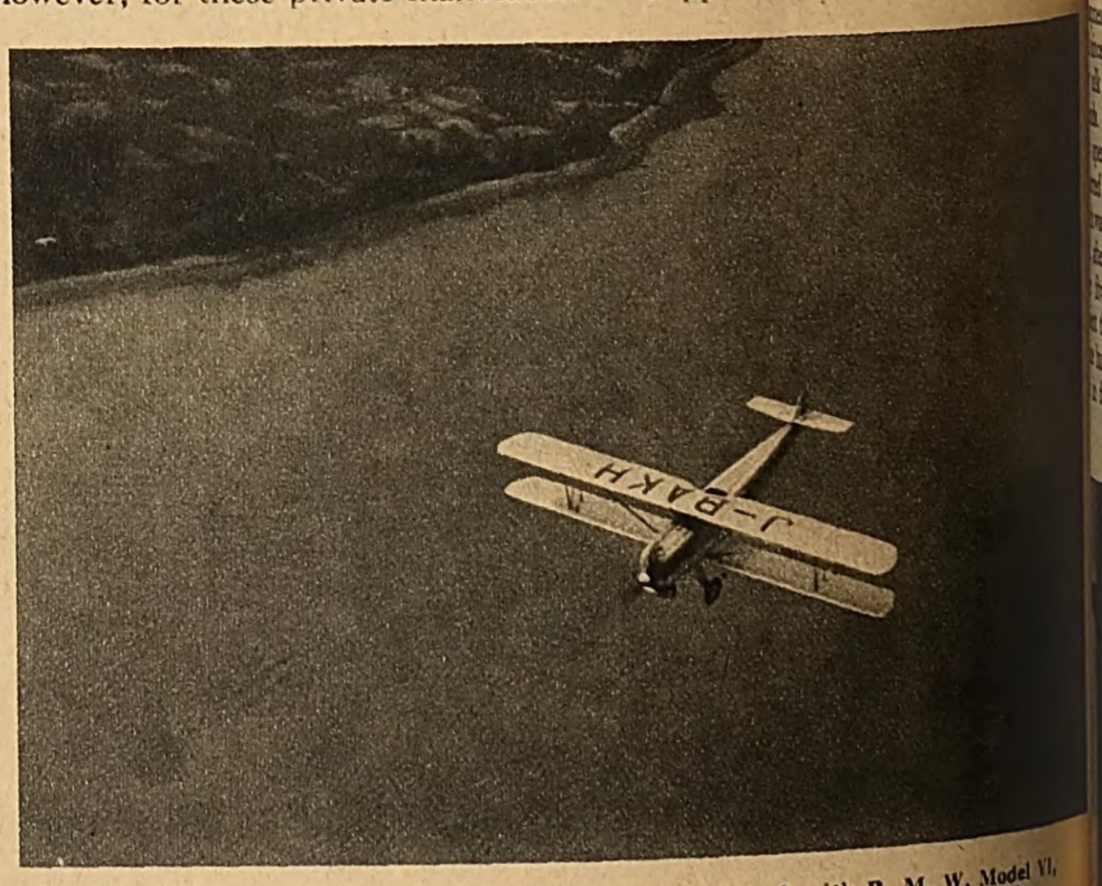
N.B.—The Aichi Watch & Electric Co. manufactures naval planes exclusively and the Ishikawajima Airplane Manufactory military planes.

MOTORS

TokyoGas & Electric Industry Co.	Tokyo
Mitsubishi Flying Machine Co.	Nagoya
AirplaneDept, Kawasaki Dockyard....	Kobe
Nakajima Airplane Manufactory, Tokyo	Tokyo

SUPPLIES

Sumitomo Shindosho	Light Metals
Nippon Hemp Mfg. Co..	Wing Fabrics
Nippon Musical Instrument Mfg. Co.....	Propellers
Nippon Steel Co.	Motor Supplies, Steel Supplies
Nippon Petroleum Oil Co.	Gasoline



Home Made Passenger Planes, "Giyu-go" Fitted with B. M. W. Model VI, 600 h.p. Motors. Length : 12.250m. Height : 3.385m. Span : 15.000m. Speed : 220.5km. Passenger Seats : 4

The aircraft industry of Japan ha... been directed technically and economi... ically by the Army and Navy. Bu... there is no law specially drawn up fo... the encouragement of the industry... There is only a practice that both... services pay favourable prices for plane... constructed at private works. A... present private works find little outl... for their manufactures among civil a... transport companies, which have ju... got started in business. Here mentio... should be made of a project by th... Navy for the construction of a facto... at Yokosuka, in which will be carri... on plane planning, construction a... experimentation.

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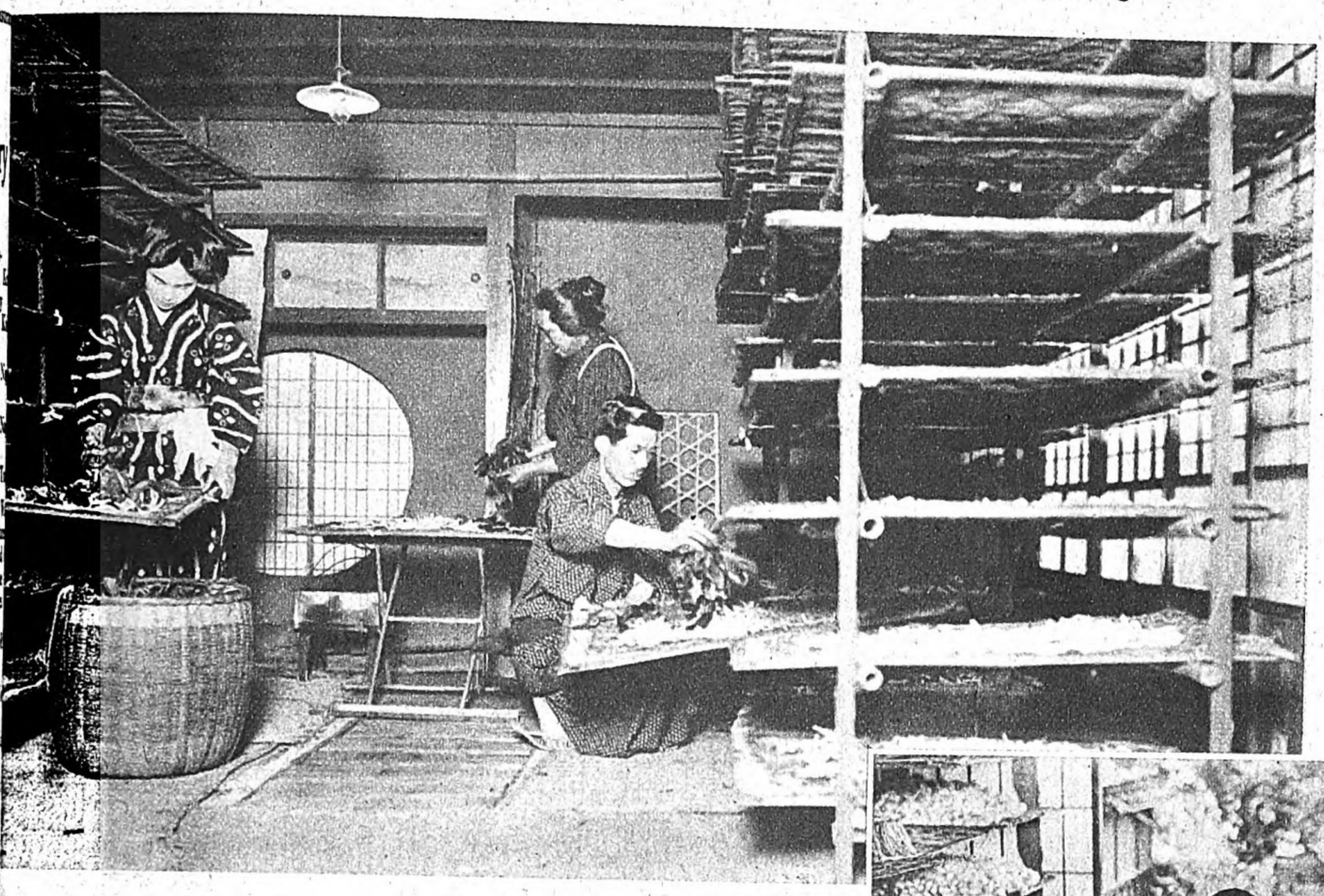
Sericulture in Japan

HISTORY

ERICULTURE in Japan traces back two thousand years, as is enced by history, but it was only nty years ago that raw silk as a modity for export began to assume importance it has today. In 1859 rtain Italian came to Yokohama, h was opened to foreign trade that , and purchased some raw silk of province at the store of a certain aya Seigoro. He bought six *hyo*, ifty-four kwamme, of silk at five -bu silver pieces per kin and export- it. This is the beginning of the ort of raw silk from Japan. One s twenty-five sen. The quality and apness pleased foreign consumers since then the demand for Japanese silk has increased by leaps and nds. At the time Yokohama was opened, the amount of raw silk orted was only 300,000 kin a year, ch was after a decade increased four- , after three decades ten-fold, and r five decades thirty-fold. At sent the annual export of raw silk ne hundred and fifty times what it in the beginning. During 1928, raw silk was exported to the amount of 54,790,000 kin, worth ¥732,000,000, and was over forty per cent. of the total exports of Japan. Of the total amount of raw silk produced in the world during 1927-8, which was 4,635 kilo grammes, Japanese silk made up a little less than seventy per cent. This shows how Japan, as the greatest supplier of raw silk in the world, plays an important part in international commerce.

Since sericulture is the pivot around which international accounts in Japan revolve, the Government takes every means to facilitate the healthy development of sericulture. The protection and encouragement of silk raising and reeling are fixed gevernment policies. Private silk industrialists also pay constant attention to the study and improvement of output and business management. A general survey of sericulture follows :



Feeding Silk Worms in a Rural Home

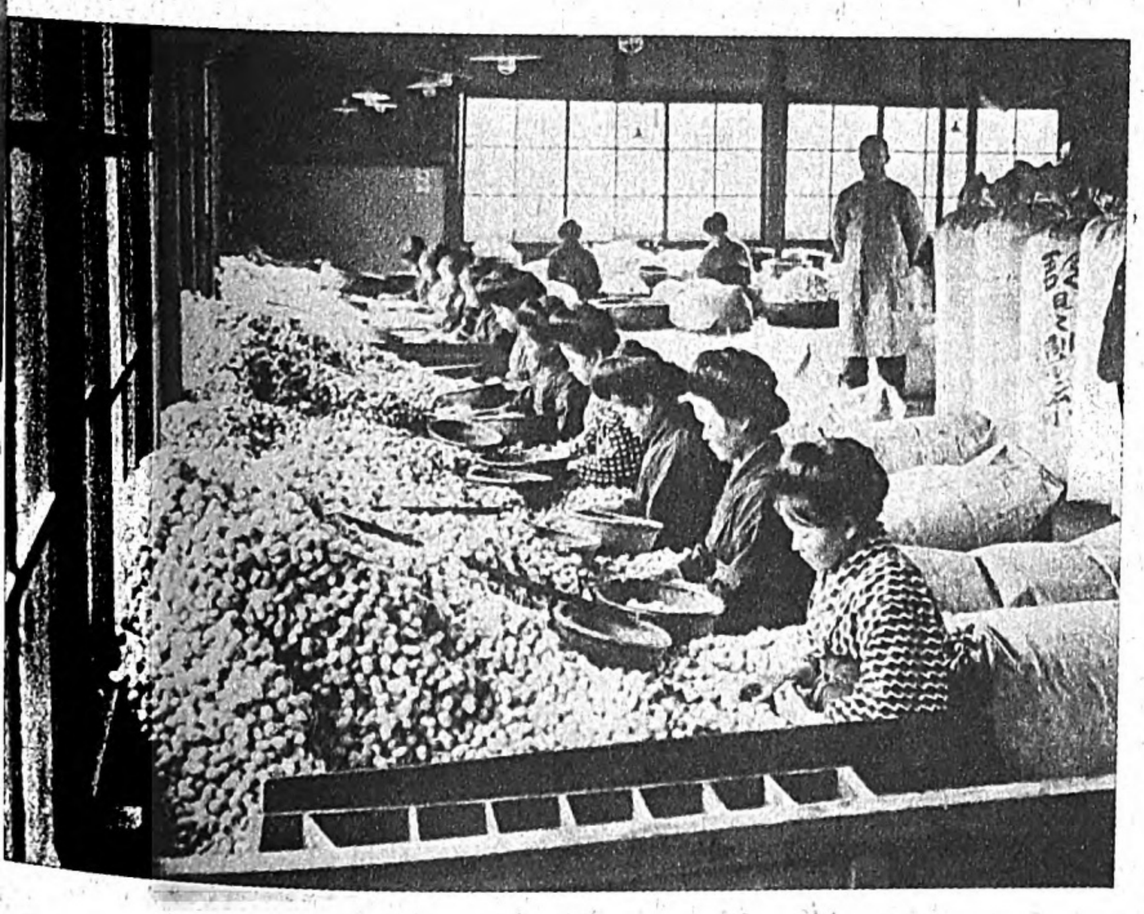
SILK RAISING

Silk raising is said to have been introduced from the Chinese continent, or from Korea, but it is a fact that the industry was already carried on at the time the Japanese Empire was founded. Its present prosperity, however, may be traced to the time when raw silk was first exported. Before that time, carried on for home supply, its progress had been very slow. The abrupt increase of demand accompanying the export of the commodity has caused a natural expansion of output. Naturally, too, various studies and investigations are being made in the improvement of silk worms, planting of mulberry trees, and rearing of silk worms. The output of cocoons is yearly increasing. Mulberry planting, and output of cocoons during the last five years are summarized in the following table :

Year	Number of silk raisers (houses)	Area planted to mulberry (cho)	Output of Cocoons (kamme)
1924	1,890,166	537,387	73,818,442
1925	1,948,706	549,370	84,799,796
1926	2,061,587	571,706	86,725,501
1927	2,103,508	594,707	90,862,559
1928	2,165,178	609,091	93,858,883

SILK RAISING SEASONS

The raising of silk worms is carried out in Spring and Autumn, and as a consequence, transactions in cocoons are chiefly in May and June, and in September and October. By way of utilising the mulberry leaves overleft after the raising of spring silk worms, the raising of Summer silk worms is being tried, but the output is only ten per cent. of the total. The spring cocoons make up over fifty per cent. of the total annual output.
effected in management, system, etc.



Sorting Silk Cocoons

TRANSACTIONS IN COCOONS

Transactions in cocoons are in raw cocoons and in dried cocoons. The former exceed the latter. Moths come out in a few days after the cocoons are formed, so that all transactions must be quickly carried out. Silk reelers, after purchasing cocoons, dry them for preservation. Unlike the products in other industries, the output of cocoons is limited to fixed seasons and the periods for completing transactions are very short, so that it is very difficult for reelers to purchase any fixed quantity from time to time. They must make a big purchase at a time. Thus they are often in financial difficulties, and often incur losses following temporary changes of prices for yarns. The silk worm raisers are forced to part with their cocoons quickly, often on more or less disadvantageous terms, by their fear that the moths may come out of the raw cocoons. Under the circumstances the transactions in dried cocoons in which the worms are dead, are increasing. Although dealing in dried cocoons necessitates the buying of equipment for drying and preserving cocoons, yet it has this advantage that it protects reelers and worm-raisers from the risks which accompany transactions in raw cocoons. On this account the government authorities encourage this system. With the diffusion of common equipment for drying cocoons, and common warehouses, transactions in dry cocoons will steadily increase.

REELING

At the time silk yarns were produced only for home consumption, reeling was a domestic industry and very primitive, but when the output of yarns in great quantity was necessitated by the export of yarns, reforms were For example, a hand-reeling machine evolved into a re-reeling machine, and then into a treadle machine, and finally into the present Western reeling machine. At present various methods for reeling have been invented and are being used. During 1928 there were 83,568 filatures with 425,691 ovens.

Removing Fresh Cocoons from Straw Beds

TRANSACTIONS IN RAW SILK

Nearly ninety per cent of the raw silk produced in Japan is exported abroad, but some portion of it is sent back from the exporting market to the weaving districts to be woven at home. There are also some reelers who produce silk only for home consumption. These reelers sell raw silk directly to merchants or weavers in the local districts.

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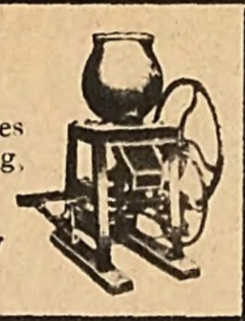
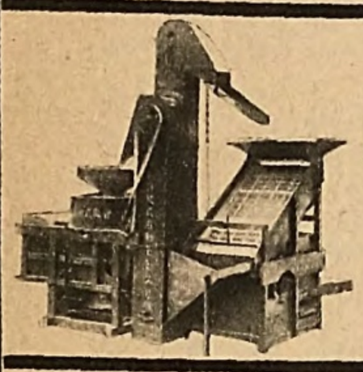


Yoshida Nogu Manufactory

Oimazato, Higashinari-ku, OSAKA.



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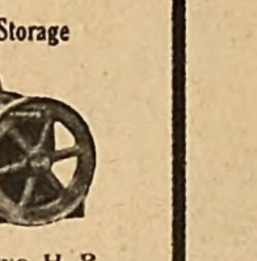

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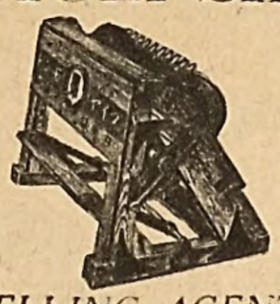

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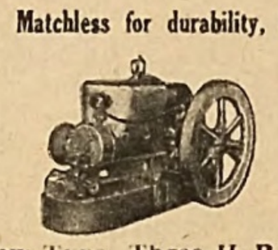
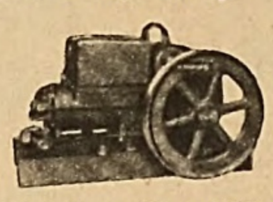


New Type, Three H. P.



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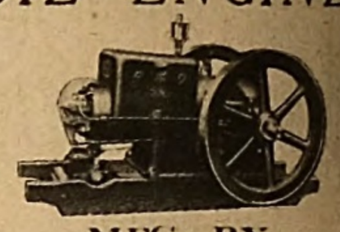

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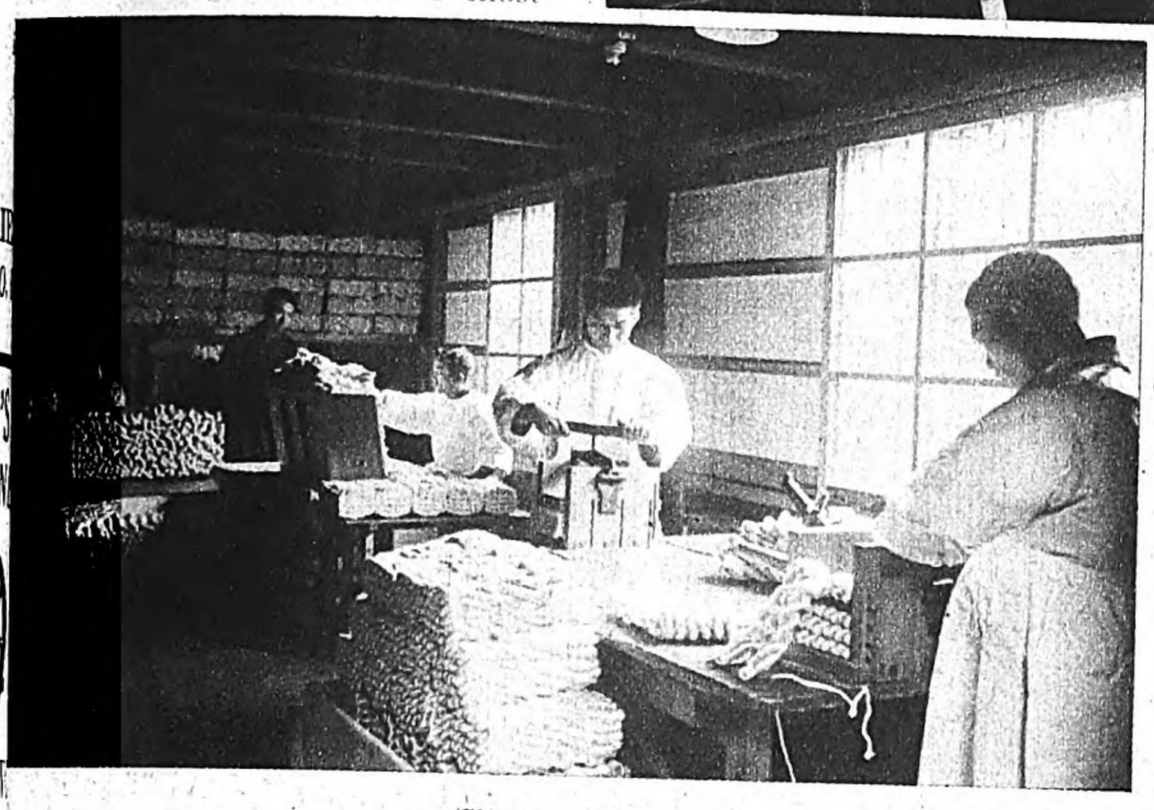
ORGANS FOR EXPORT

Until recently the export trade in
v silk was all carried on in Yokohama,
t the port was utterly destroyed in
e earthquake in Eastern Japan in
23. Then silk was exported from
obe temporarily. At present the
port of the commodity is being
ried out through the two ports. The
io is 65 per cent. for Yokohama and
per cent. for Kobe. The method of
port is the same in both ports. In
se ports there are wholesalers and
port firms, and the sales organs of
lers. The Conditioning Houses ex-
in both ports as subsidiary organs.
elers entrust their goods to whole-
ers for disposal to exporters. This
tem of consignment sale is most

Section of a Reeling Room in a Mill



Skeining Silk

gely resorted to. There are also
ne reelers who sell their goods
ectly to exporters, and some reelers
mselves engage in export trade. As
npared with consignment sales, direct
s are insignificant, but the rationali-
ion of all industry is creating a
dency toward the direct sale system.

TRANSACTION METHOD

To give the process by which the raw
from local districts is sent to the
pping port, selling agents belonging
the wholesalers daily record the
ds for sale, and show their lists to
orters. One hundred and one
usand kin is the unit for transactions,
ich are made by sale on description.
e transactions in Yokohama some-
es amount to two hundred thousand
and sometimes to four hundred
usand kin. The transactions having
s been completed, the sellers send
goods to the purchasers within
days. The exporters in receiving
goods inspect the silk for quality
t by means of machinery and then
h the naked eye. If the goods are
sed, they are sent to the condition-
house for examination of positive
ntity. Within four days after the
mination of the positive quantity,
accounts are settled.

EXAMINATION OF POSITIVE QUANTITY

Raw silk is dried, so that it practic-
contains no moisture. Moisture
ounting to eleven per cent. of the
ght is regarded as the official quan-
. In 1926 a law was promulgated
which raw silk for export must be
mined for positive quantity at the
k Conditioning House. Raw silk
tains more or less moisture, and the
ntity of moisture affects the weight
well as the quality of the goods at the
e of the transaction. On this
ount no raw silk can be exported
ess it is first examined for its positive
ntity.

SILK EXCHANGES

The Yokohama Silk Exchange is the
est of all the silk exchanges. It was
ablished in 1894, and was the only
at silk exchange in the world until
year, when the New York National
k Exchange was opened in Septem-
, and a silk exchange was established
in Kobe in December. Thus there now exist three exchanges. This shows that silk yarns have become an international commodity.

THE YOKOHAMA SILK EXCHANGE

The Yokohama Exchange has a capital of ¥6,500,000 (all paid up). It also deals in rice and stocks. The old buildings of the Exchange were destroyed by the earthquake in 1923. The new buildings were completed in August this year at a cost of seven hundred thousand yen. Mr. Ko Isaka is the president of the Exchange. There are thirty-five members, of whom four deal exclusively in silk yarns.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR COMPLETE REDEMPTION

The Exchange is held responsible for all loss caused to customers through non-fulfillment of contract on the part of the members of the Exchange. On this account the Exchange takes ¥40,000 in guarantee money from each member. Besides the guarantee money, the members are obliged to deposit margins and fees for transactions. Transactions take place every day at 9.20 and 11.20 in the morning; and at 1.20 and 2.20 in the afternoon, except on Saturdays, when only the morning sessions are held. Six months are the longest term for delivery the present law allows.

EXCHANGE METHOD

Silk yarns are sold on bids. At every session prices are set for every delivery, and this is repeated once more, so that eight prices are set for every delivery, but in order to prevent abrupt changes in prices, margins of over twenty yen in a day are prohibited.

UNITS FOR NOMINAL PRICE AND TRANSACTIONS

Ten kin is the unit for nominal price, and ten sen the unit for quotations, and no fractions are used. The unit for transactions is one thousand kin.

EXAMINATION AND DELIVERY

Gross Weighing of Raw Silk Before Conditioning Test

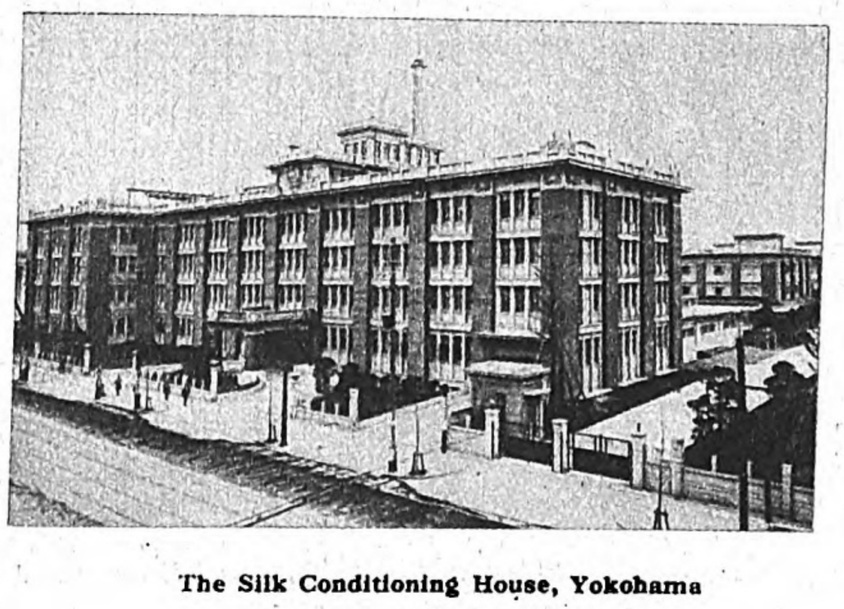
Deliveries are always made sealed. Silk goods sent by the members of the Exchange are inspected by the method fixed by the Exchange, and those which pass the inspection are closely sealed. The seal is effective for a year. The delivery of goods is fixed at the end of the month, but the parties to transactions are allowed to effect delivery at any time earlier than the end of the month.

ORGANS FOR THE RELIEF OF SILK DEALERS

For the purpose of assuring the safety and betterment of those engaging in transactions in silk yarns, the following measures are taken by the exchange.

DEPOSIT AGAINST LOSS

The reelers and the wholesalers have orga nized the Imperial Silk Yarn Association for the purpose of protecting themselves against emergencies. The reelers have deposited one yen for every bale of goods sent to the markets in Yokohama and Kobe since December, 1926. The wholesalers have deposited ten sen for each bale they have handled. The reelers, besides the above, make a special deposit of twentyfive yen for every thousand kin of raw silk. This deposit was commenced in July, this year, and will be continued until the deposit reaches the amount of thirty million yen.



The Silk Conditioning House, Yokohama

THE IMPERIAL SILK YARN JOINT STOCK COMPANY

This company was established in 1926 with a capital of ¥5,000,000, of which one-fourth was paid up. The capital was furnished by silk wholesalers and reelers. The company has for its object the stabilization of the prices of yarns, and advances funds to dealers for the purchase of raw silk at times of emergency, and makes loans on guarantee.

GOVERNMENT REDEMPTION OF LOSS

The government has promulgated a law by which banks which advance loans to silk dealers, shall in times of emergency be recompensed for their losses to the extent of thirty million yen for five years. The law has been in force since September this year.

CORPORATIONS IN THE SILK YARN TRADE

A. The Dai Nippon Silk Yarn Association

This association was established in 1892 with a view to improving the silk yarn industry. Prince Kan-in is the honorary president and Mr. T. Makino the president of the association. The association makes important decisions regarding the industry, honors those who contribute towards the industry and those unions which produce superior qualities of silk, makes investigations and establishes connections with abroad.

B. The Central Association of the Silk Yarn Industry Unions

This association was inaugurated in 1916, and is divided into three sections. It is the central organ of the unions scattered throughout the country. It aims at the federation of the unions. It also makes efforts for the development of the industry, and its trade. Mr. Gentaro Shimura is the president of the association, and Mr. Tatsushiro Kageyama the vice-president.

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Patented Y. K. S. Ball Bearings

The feature of Y. K. S. ball bearings is that they can be taken to pieces.

SALES AGENT:

OHOTO YAKICHI STORES

2, Uchi-Andoji-Machi, Minami-Ku, Osaka.

Spinning Jennies, Machinery for Spinning ramie, hemp, wool, cotton, rayon & silk.

Ishii's patented D. type machinery for peeling hemp.

KUSHIDA IRON WORKS

TSUNEJI KUSHIDA, Manager.

NISHI-KUJO, OSAKA.

Steel Wire Helds of various kinds

The Fujiwara's Helds Manufactory, Ltd.

Nakamichicho, Higashinariku, Osuka.

The new factory is at

1,391, Ikaino-Machi, Osaka.

Zinc chloride, Flowers of Zinc, Sulphate of Zinc, Barium chloride, etc.

THE SAKAI REFINERY CO.

HEAD OFFICE:

Ebisujima, Sakai, Osaka Pref.

SALES OFFICE:

Tsumemachi, Koraibashi, Higashi-Ku, Osaka.

Fabric Glue

THE FUJISAKI OIL AND FAT MANUFACTORY

Ashihara-Bashi, Naniwaku, Osaka.

Wooden Pipes and Shuttles for Weaving

The Japan Trading & Mfg. Co., Ltd.

(Nippon Shoko Kaisha)

Factory: *Namimatsucho, Sakaishi.*

Head Office: *5, Minamihoriedori, Nishiku, Osaka.*

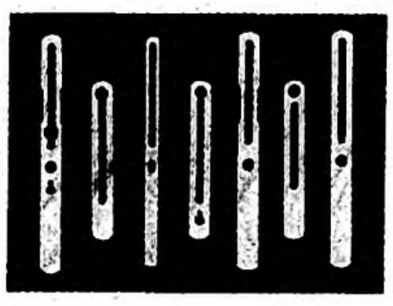
MANUFACTURERS, IMPORTERS & EXPORTERS OF WEAVING & SPINNING MACHINES AND - - - - FITTINGS & ACCESSORIES - - - -

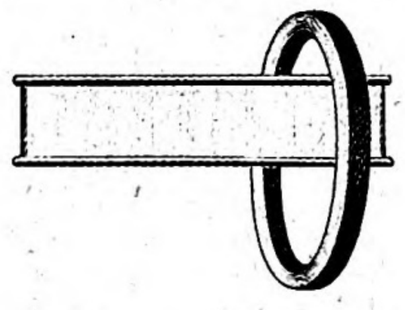
K. ONISHI & CO., LTD.

ITACHIBORI KITADORI 7-CHOME, OSAKA.

紡績織物機械附屬品
輸出入並製作販賣業
股份有限公司 大西商店
大阪市西區立賣堀北通七丁目
CABLE ADDRESS: "YUBENZOJA, OSAKA."

Lead Wires and Droppers





Hasegawa & Co., Ltd.

Sanchome, Minamidori, Edobori, Nishiku, Osaka.

Labour Saving Machinery

Machinery for the chemical industry.

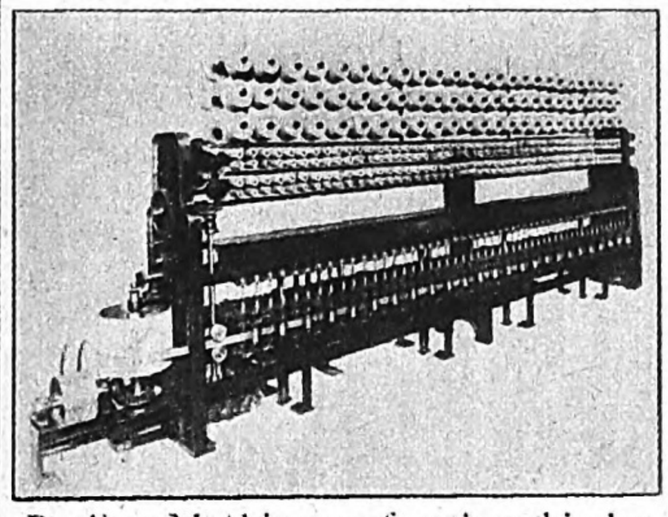
Pumps.

Machinery for the Manufacture of Sugar Various Other Machinery.

The Tanaka Machinery Works, Ltd.

Sanchome, Kitadori, Shirinashigawa, Minatoku, Osaka.

Nagatani's Reeling Machinery



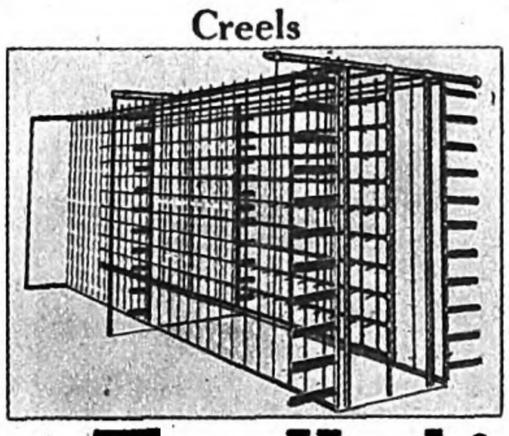
Reeling Machinery of various kinds; Machinery for processes preparatory to reeling, etc.

The Nagatani Reeling Machinery Manufactory

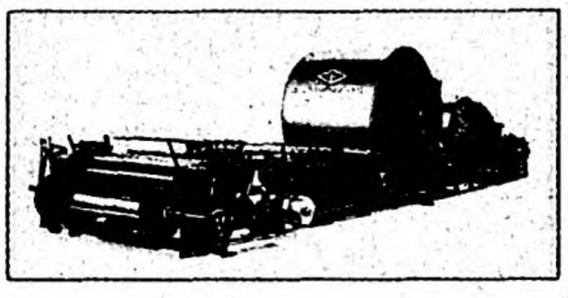
Head Office:

Kusaimura, Hagurigun, Aichi Prefecture.

Creels



Slasher Starching Machinery



The Hashimoto Works

Sanomachi, Osaka.

High-Class Axle Regulating Aparatus.

The Matsui Iron Works, Ltd.

The only factory in Japan, making these machines.

Head Office:

Tsukuda-Machi, Nishi-Yodogawa-Ku, OSAKA.

Branch:

Tori Nichome, Itachibori-Kitadori, Nishiku, Osaka.

Shuttles for:—

Automatic Spinning Weaving Machinery

Shuttles for silk, wool, hemp;

Wooden pipes of various kinds for textile manufacture.

The Godo Shuttle Manf. Co., Ltd.

The Izumi Shuttle Manf. Co., Ltd.

Sanomachi, Osaka.

THE MARUBENI 紅 SHOTEN, LTD.

Artificial Silk, Spun Silk Yarn, Export Silk Textiles, Fuji Silk, Thrown Silk Finishing.

SILK DEPARTMENT.

Shijo-Minami, Muromachi, KYOTO.

Phones:

Shimo { *No. 5001 to No. 5005* / *No. 7680 to No. 7684*

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THE SPINNING INDUSTRY IN JAPAN TO-DAY

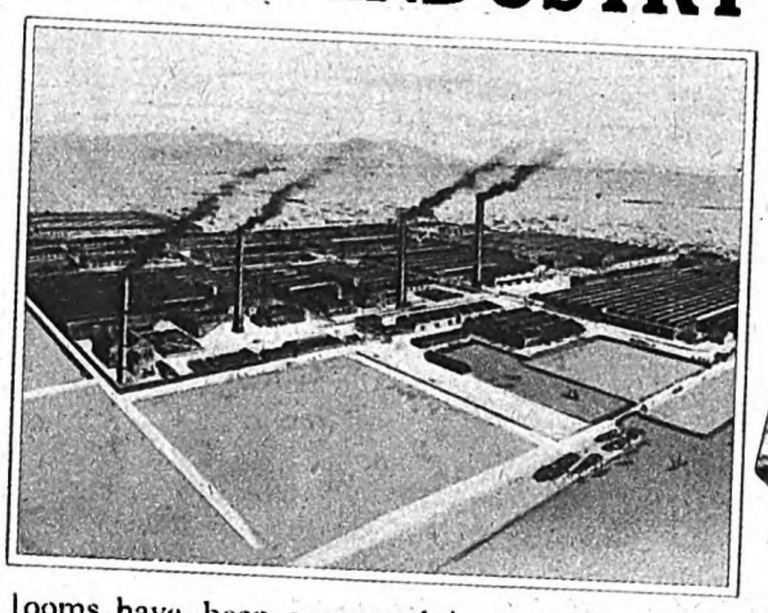
n spinning output, Japan occupies seventh place among the countries the world, coming after Great ain, the United States, Germany, nce, India and Russia, but in the sumption of raw cotton Japan is en only by the United States and at Britain. This fact illustrates peculiar position of Japan in the on and textile industry. The fact night work at comparatively low es, was used in the industry also stituted a peculiar feature in Japan, night work has been abolished, the working time has been reduced ours and more a month. In order aintain the output and to meet the increasing demand, it was neces- to increase the number of spindles. sequently since the end of June, , about a million spindles have been d. In order to reduce expenses, eased efficiency has been planned. s standardisation of the working esses has been effected, and the ber of workers has been reduced. compared with the corresponding th in 1926, in April this year spindles had been increased by 588, while the number of girl atives had been decreased by 30.

the weaving industry similar ges have taken place. The number oms, which was 77,043 at the end 926, was increased to 81,209 at the of 1928. Most of the ordinary looms have been converted into automatic looms. Thus despite the increase of looms, the workers have been decreased from 57,000 in 1926 to 43,000 in 1928. The spinning industry of Japan has during the past three years limited output, preventing an increase with the increase of spindles, and the companies have been able to maintain a good rate of dividend.

The average dividend of the members of the federation of spinning companies has been as follows :

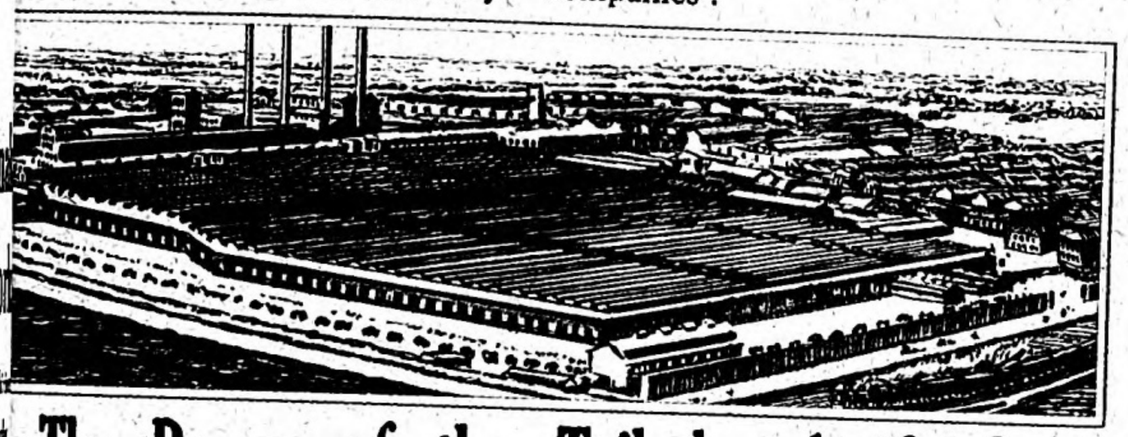
The latter half of 1926	14.8%
The first half of 1927	14.5%
The latter half of 1927	14.7%
The first half of 1928	13.5%
The latter half of 1928	14.2%

The following are the representative companies :



The Dai Nippon Spinning Company, the Toyo (Oriental) Spinning Company, the Kanegafuchi Spinning Company, the Osaka Godo Spinning Company, and the Osaka Meriyasu Spinning Company.

Cuts, girl operatives at rest in the shade of trees, a factory with perfect equipment, and the clothes worn by girl operatives.



The Rayon of the Teikoku Artificial Silk Manufacturing Company

ie company has the oldest history he newest equipment in the rayon try of Japan, and it is included g the first class rayon companies e world.

ie company's rayon is regarded as nferior to the best produced in n countries, owing to the fact it not only has the necessary ties for weaving, such as easy g, softness, fine brightness, even- of deniers, etc., but it is manu- red by special machinery, and an eculiar to Japan.

ie company has supplied more half demand of the country nore than ten years, and has just leted the construction of a big ry at Iwakuni, which will produce s to the amount of 27,000 lbs. a The output will not only meet the ever increasing domestic demand, but will enable the company to expand the market abroad.

The company is planning to carry out the third term extension of the factory. When the plan is realised, the factory will become one of the largest rayon factories in the world. This factory, together with the company's other factories at Hiroshima and Yonezawa will make the company one of the great prides of Japan.

DEMAND FOR RAYON IN JAPAN

Years	Produced in Japan	Imported	Exported	Consumed
	(Unit the French ton)			
1912	——	74	——	74
1916	——	19	——	19
1921	68	62	2	128
1922	113	102	3	212
1926	2,500	1,495	3	3,992
1927	4,760	363	——	5,123
1928	7,250	116	——	7,366

Ube Cement Mfg. Company

Ube, Japan

The recent chemical industries in Japan has much developed, among of them the cement works are made a remarkable progress. We believe that now-a-days Japan is never give a place to other countries in regards to the quality of cement and its manufacturing process. UBE CEMENT COMPANY is situated in Ube City on the eastwards about 20 miles distance from Moji, and here is a very convenient place for communication both by land and sea. It was established in 1923, and has Seven Million Yen capital. The annual output are 2,100,000 bbls. The manufacturing process and the machineries in this factory are of the latest and the up-to-date one. There are two Rotary Kilns and 5 Compeb Mills for Dry process, and two unax Kilns and 4 Unidan Mills for Wet process. The half of output are manufactured by the former and the rest are made by the latter, which is the most modern type in Japan and the products are superior. The latter process are now under construction, and it will be completed by January next year.

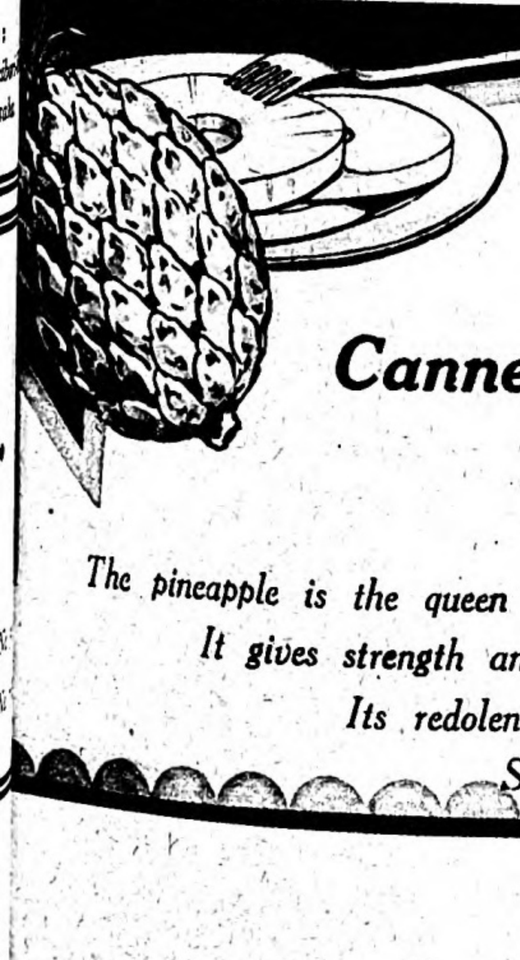
The cement which made in this plant is very good quality for the reason of the superiority of raw materials, especially Clay being shale from coal mine.

It is very favourably speaking among the customers that the cement is not only very strong in its strength and uniform in composition, but on account of its colour is attractive.

The home markets of the goods are Tokyo, Osaka, Kyushu, Inland Sea Coast, Chosen, Taiwan and all over the Japan. Moreover the foreign exports are about 200,000 bbls in a year, and they are now undertaking to extend the markets. So that when the extension works completed, it will be able to export about 500,000 bbls in a year. The exports are mainly destinated for South China, Philippine Island, French Indo China, Malay States, Java, Sumatra Island and others. They have now two export sole agents as following.

(1) Kwanan Trading Company for Hongkong and neighbourhood.

(2) Carl Schleeper and Company, Batavia for Java and Sumatra Island.



Formosan Pineapples

Canned Pineapple

100 % Food

The pineapple is the queen of fruits.
It gives strength and health.
Its redolence is the distillation of Southern Seas.

Drink Woolung Tea !

It makes excellent ice tea.

The taste and fragrance are refreshing.

Industry Bureau of the Formosan Government General

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The Cotton Industry in Japan

JAPAN'S cotton industry, as a whole, has been inactive during the year 1928. Less raw cotton was imported ast year than in 1927 and 1926, figures, by value, declining from ¥725,930,206 to ¥549,941,686; and a declining tendency in the export of cotton goods has been continuous for the past several years, showing last year the lowest figures since 1925. Figures for imports nd exports for the cotton industry during the past three years were as follows:

	1928	1927	1926
Raw Cotton Imports	¥549,941,686	¥624,630,660	¥725,930,206
Cotton Yarn Exports	25,984,905	38,794,408	70,710,335
Cotton Cloth Exports	390,702,776	418,758,846	448,720,101

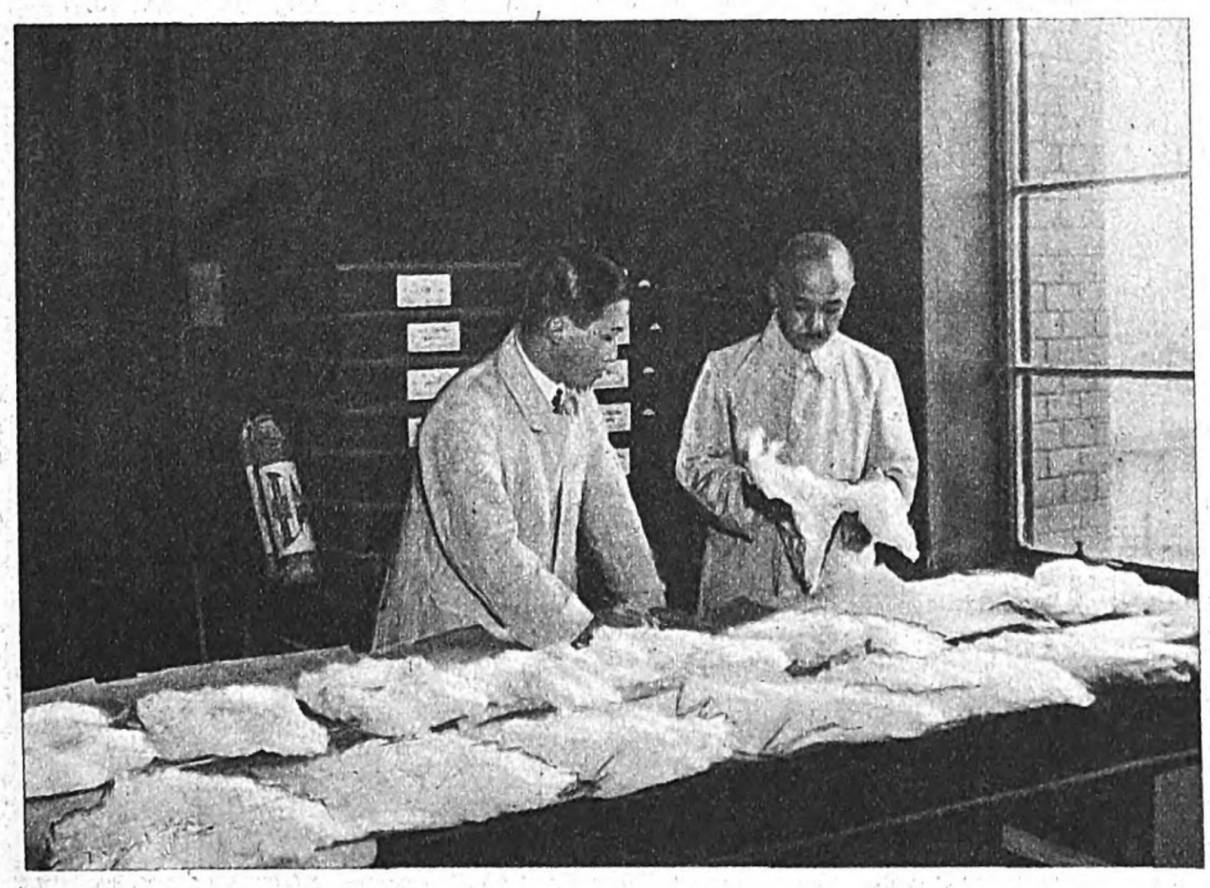
Cotton yarn exports fell in details as follows:

COTTON YARN EXPORTS
(In ¥000)

To	1928	1927
China	8,109	9,205
Kwantung	771	867
Hongkong	4,195	3,648
British India	9,181	20,040
Dutch Indies	829	1,359
Philippines	470	672
Siam	97	363
Egypt	619	1,209
Others	1,623	1,431
Total	25,894	38,794

It is interesting to note, that, despite the talk of severe anti-Japanese boycott movements which prevailed throughout China last year, being incited by the Tsinan Incident, the value of cotton cloth exports increased by ¥35,000,000 over 1927. This might appear to indicate the impotency of the movement over the actual demand in China, but it should be noted that English cotton goods have become active in Chinese markets during these years, and that had it not been for the anti-Japanese boycotts and the keen competition which was brought about by English cotton goods taking advantage of the boycott disturbances, the year 1928 would have been an unprecedented prosperity in Japan's export of cotton cloth to China. The following comparison between the figures for English and Japanese exports of cotton cloth

To	1928	1927
Egypt	17,638	23,297
Cape Town	2,096	2,643
Australia	2,392	4,731
New Zealand	275	487
Hawaii	216	251
Others	11,093	16,495
Total	352,217	381,761



Grading Cotton

The tendency in this direction, which was due to the pressure of China's progress in the spinning industry after the great war, has been remarkably strong during 1928, due chiefly to the fact hat British India, which, with the South Sea Islands, has been the most important market for Japan's cotton products, decreased its purchases to a large extent by raising the tariff rate on cotton yarn to an almost prohibitive degree in September, 1927. It may be said, therefore, that the time has come when cotton yarn gives place to cotton cloth in the export trade. However, as the following figures indicate, exports of cotton cloth for the year 1928 still remained inactive with a drop of ¥29,444,000 from the previous year:

COTTON CLOTH EXPORTS
(In ¥000)

To	1928	1927
China	158,498	123,361
Kwantung	15,074	12,983
Hongkong	17,646	29,426
British India	70,185	85,782
Straits Setts.	3,519	9,777
Dutch Indies	39,275	49,214
Philippines	6,797	10,927
Siam	1,359	4,039
Turky	2,971	2,202
U.S.A.	249	271
Chile	850	1,183
Argentina	2,175	4,727
Uruguay	91	—

to Shanghai during the past two years clearly indicates the process of the competition which proved to be a menace to Japanese exports: (Unit: 1,000 Tan).

Month		1927	1928	Increase	Decrease
Jan.	Japan	505	621	23%	—
	England	360	157	—	57%
Feb.	J.	402	1,410	251%	—
	E.	297	190	—	36%
Mar.	J.	297	1,138	287%	—
	E.	217	256	18%	—
Apr.	J.	257	1,221	375%	—
	E.	125	327	161%	—
May	J.	265	827	211%	—
	E.	226	255	13%	—

As the figures given so far indicate, Japanese cloth exports had been active until May, 1928, when the Tsinan Incident occurred. And after June, 1928, they began to be overwhelmed by English cloth exports as follows:

Month		1027	1928	Increase	Decrease
June	Japan	358	234	—	35%
	England	125	228	82%	—
July	J.	565	460	—	19%
	E.	83	379	375%	—
Aug.	J.	912	410	—	55%
	E.	128	426	234%	—
Sept.	J.	506	536	60%	—
	E.	81	323	300%	—
Oct.	J.	913	1,113	22%	—
	E.	174	405	132%	—
Nov.	J.	547	568	4%	—
	E.	183	513	180%	—
Dec.	J.	547	276	—	50%
	E.	124	1,106	789%	—
Total	J.	6,073	8,816	45%	—
	E.	2,127	4,565	114%	—

As is seen in the above tabulation, English cotton cloth exports gained 114% last year, while those of Japan gained only 45%. Not only that, but the condition is far from an improved one during the first half of the current year, export figures still indicating the dullness of the trade to China. Figures for the period between January and June in 1929 and in the previous year are given below:

EXPORTS OF COLOURED, PRINTED & DYED CLOTH

To	1929	1928	Comparison
Shanghai	¥19,711,423	¥28,203,100	– ¥8,491,677
Tientsin	2,752,732	7,935,777	– 5,183,045
Tsingtao	2,589,470	2,367,075	+ 222,395
Dairen	5,289,884	3,832,569	+ 1,457,315
Hankow	235,917	2,051,762	– 1,815,845
Hongkong	5,773,849	7,280,420	– 1,506,571
Manchuria	11,684,318	7,113,101	+ 4,571,217
Other Chinese Ports	35,904	70,408	– 34,504
(Decrease in 1929)			840,421

WHITE CLOTH EXPORTS

To	1929	1928	Comparison
Shanghai	¥6,680,714	¥8,080,865	– ¥1,400,151
Tientsin	1,086,012	2,022,200	– 936,188
Tsingtao	1,034,698	600,553	+ 434,145
Dairen	1,137,214	786,641	+ 350,573
Hankow	395,386	687,029	– 219,643
Hongkong	970,339	1,310,784	– 340,445
Manchuria	4,049,656	2,704,865	+ 1,344,791
Other Chinese Ports	17,794	19,200	– 1,406
(Decrease in 1929)			840,421

GREY CLOTH EXPORTS

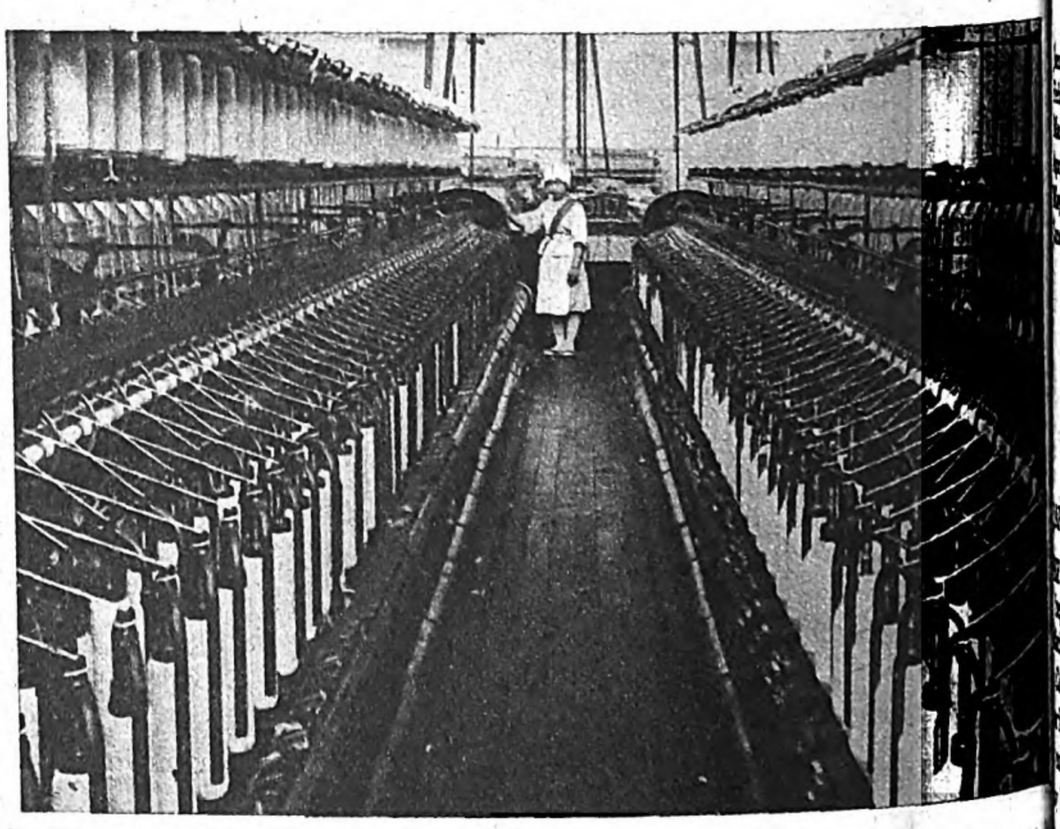
To	1929	1928	Comparison
Shanghai	¥ 3,327,583	¥3,699,385	– ¥ 371,802
Tientsin	2,003,359	3,069,675	– 1,066,316
Tsingtao	516,573	390,029	+ 126,544
Dairen	2,668,757	2,522,074	+ 146,683
Hankow	11,536	568,774	– 557,238
Hongkong	2,099,732	2,781,788	– 682,056
Manchuria	10,560,925	9,781,416	+ 779,506
Other Chinese Ports	14,458	44,172	– 29,714
(Decrease in 1929)			1,654,390

While figures for cotton goods, exc... cloth, have declined during the p... two years as follows:

COTTON GOODS EXPORTS
(In ¥000)

	1928	1927	Comparison
Blankets	2,787	3,225	– 43...
Towels	3,393	3,396	– ...
Hosiery	33,301	29,057	+ 4,24...
Others	3,980	7,655	– 3,67...
Total	423,219	465,694	– 42,47...

Surveying all the tabulations gi... above, the following points in conn... tion with Japan's export of cotton y... and cloth in the year 1928 are perc... able: (1) that the exports to In... declined; (2) that the exports to co... ries other than India and Ch... declined; (3) that the trade to Ch... was greatly impeded by the a... Japanese boycott movements; (4) ... the gain of hosiery exports was rem...



Roving Machines in a Japanese Spinning Mill

As the above figures show, cotton cloth exports to China during the first half of the current year decreased by ¥3,275,000 compared with the corresponding period of the previous year. It is, however, worthy of note that, due to a steady increase in the exports to India, the Dutch Indies, Egypt, Africa, Siam, South America, Arabia and Persia during the same period, Japan's export of cotton cloth as a whole has been improved to a certain extent. Figures for the first half of 1929 and 1928 are as follows:

COTTON CLOTH EXPORTS

	1929	1928	Comparison
Coloured, Printed & Dyed Cloth	¥97,840,690	¥95,140,624	+ ¥2,700,066
White Cloth	19,939,160	18,977,596	+ 962,564
Grey Cloth	80,908,778	57,470,156	+ 23,438,622
(Increase)			27,101,252

able among cotton goods, except... yarn and cloth; (5) that the trade ... countries other than China, wh... Japanese cotton exports have rema... as stagnant as before because of t... continuing anti-Japanese movem... has more or less been improved in ... first half of the current year.

Then, what about Japan's co... trade balance? Though it is import... to make a careful study in this resp... in connection with Japan's co... industry, which is the kernel of Japa... foreign trade, to our regret, o... estimated figures for some of the i...

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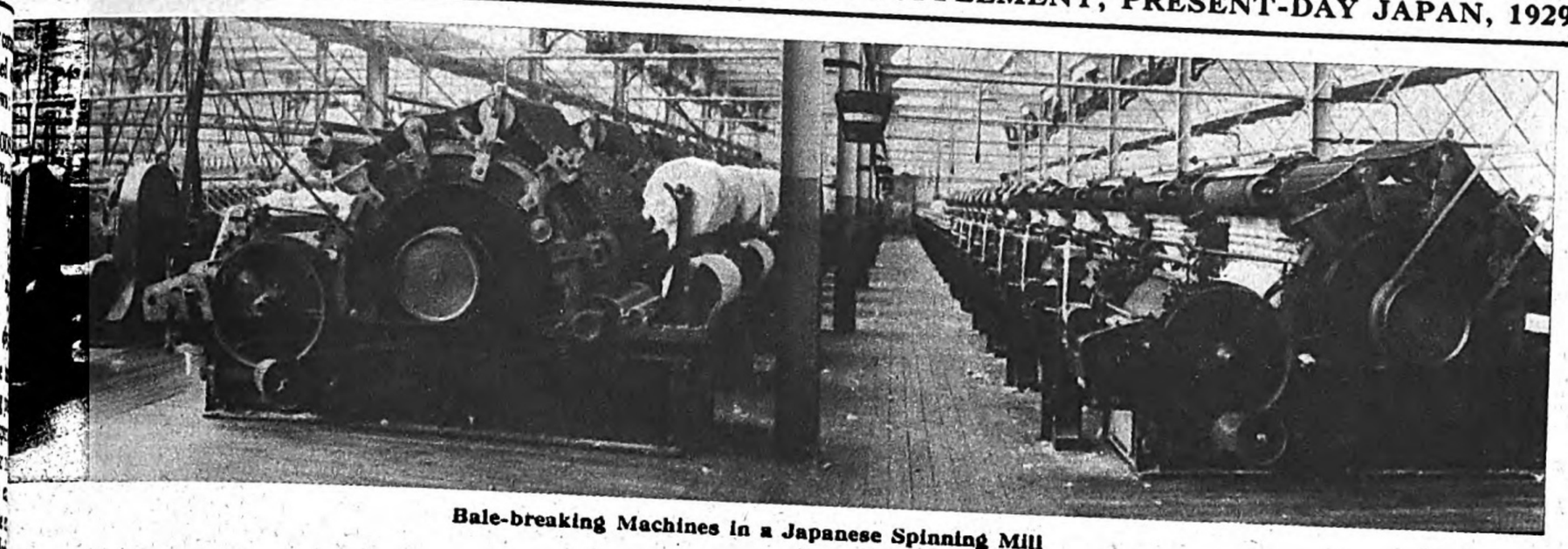


Bale-breaking Machines in a Japanese Spinning Mill

the following table are obtainable. ance figures for the year 1928 were follows :

aw Cotton Imports (by inance Dept.)	¥549,942,000
e-exports (estimated)	30,851,000
sed for Quilts (,,)	27,647,000
sed for Spinning (,,)	491,417,000
orth of Exports (by inance Dept.).....	417,596,000
nfavourable Balance	73,821,000

n excess of imports over exports of 3,821,000, as shown above, could totally be avoided, because of the that cotton cloth is consistently reat demand for clothing in Japan. refore, it becomes apparent that only remedy for this tendency is keep the unfavourable balance at smallest possible figure by en-raging exports.

he year 1929 has seen an important nge in Japan's cotton spinning ustry as a result of the revised tory Law abolishing midnight work ch came into effect on the 1st of .

onditions on the 1st of June, 1929 given by the Japan Cotton Spin-' Association as follows :

o. of Companies	71
o. of Factories	259
o. of Spindles	6,529,394
o. of Looms.....	78,870

usiness results for the first half of year 1928 are shown in the following e :

	Average Working Spindles	Cotton Yarn Production	Yarn Cohsumption in Weaving (Sub-work by Spinners only)	Export	Domestic Use of Cotton Yarn
January....	5,154,455	219,399(bales)	67,106(bales)	5,215(bales)	147,078(bales)
February ..	5,171,728	216,552	66,464	4,632	145,456
March	5,266,242	218,635	68,576	6,724	143,335
April	5,538,600	229,601	71,941	6,687	150,973
May	5,670,113	231,949	73,122	5,975	152,852
June	5,711,509	231,623	71,409	4,604	155,610

During the same period the total output of cotton cloth amounted to 130,470,368 yards, the number of looms operated being 68,429 and the number of companies being 44.

As a result of the enforcement of the regulations abolishing midnight work, on the 1st of July this year, the operation system of " 20 hours a day, 26 days a month " was replaced by one of " 17 hours a day, 28 days a month " (both being the total of hours for double shift), which means a decrease of 44 hours in the actual working hours per month. This caused the Spinners' Association to curtail operations by 23% after July 11, in order to meet the situation.

In an effort to maintain an average output, and to meet the natural increased demand, Japanese mill-owners have been inclined to increase the number of spindles on the one hand, and to make efforts to promote a higher standard of efficiency among their employees on the other. The fact that in April this year, the number of working spindles showed an increase of 574,000, while that of female employees showed a decrease of 18,680 compared with the numbers in April of the previous year, is one example of the results brought about by this new law. It may be said, therefore, that the management of Japan's cotton spinning industry has had a qualitative change with the abolition of midnight work as its turning-point.

The Rayon Industry

JAPAN'S RAYON OUTPUT

HE manufacture of rayon in Japan began its development with the ndation of the Teikoku Artificial Silk . Co. in 1918, and during the last or five years has been surprising in output and quality of products. ay be said that Japan has shared he rapid world-wide growth of the n industry in recent years.

ntil several years ago, however, it necessary for Japan to import a y large amount of foreign products rike a balance between demand and ut. In 1926 she took rayon im-s to the amount of 3,300,000 lb., highest figures ever reached, but has been taking less and less ever e the following year. Now a stage been reached where she needs orted goods no longer, except for w special orders.

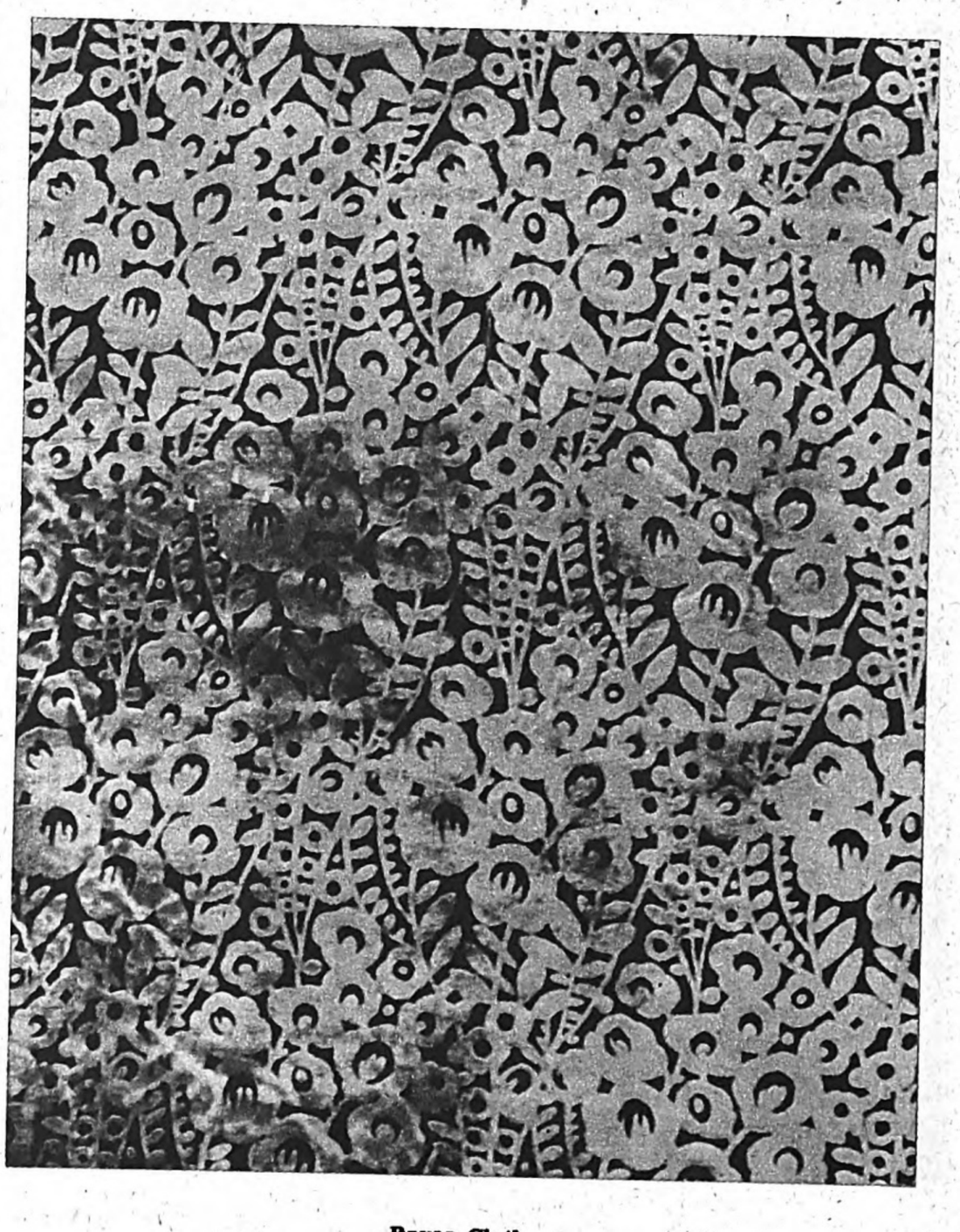
uch a position has been reached not because Japan has achieved the ities of production and technical rovement comparable with that of r rayon producing countries, but use she safeguarded the industry by raising the tariff on rayon in 1926 In this connection should be mentioned a fact that sash-cloth and *kijakuji* (the cloth of which the main stuff of the Japanese dress is made), comprising the bulk of the demand for rayon in this country, have to be specially woven because of the humidity and other natural conditions and the Japanese way of dyeing, which is, of course, successfully done only by Japanese weavers.

The annual output and import of rayon in Japan since 1921 have been as follows :

Year	Output	Import
1921....	250,000	138,029
1922....	527,000	226,409
1923....	780,000	952,224
1924....	1,368,000	810,025
1925....	3,200,000	833,100
1926....	5,000,000	3,317,921
1927....	10,500,000	798,671
1928....	16,500,000	256,763

FUTURE PROSPECTS

A depreciation of rayon prices has been recently felt all over the world, and Japan has not escaped. But, considered from a certain angle, a depreciated price level favours the industry, because it tends to create a larger demand for rayon. This makes it possible to believe that in the near future Japan's rayon industry will never suffer from over-production to any extent, considering the probable improvement of home consumption and exportation. Moreover it is even believed that mass-production on a greater scale than at present will be shortly introduced in the industry to meet the growing demand at home and abroad and to realize a reduction in the cost of production.



Rayon Cloth

RAYON INVESTMENTS

The aggregate investment by Japanese companies in the rayon industry amounts to ¥100,000,000. An extension scheme is now being realized by several major concerns such as the Teikoku Aritificial Silk Co., the Toyo Rayon, the Showa Rayon, the Nippon Rayon, the Kurashiki Rayon, and the Kurashiki Silk Weaving Co. This extension project is to be completed between the latter half of the present year and the first half of next year. And here should be mentioned the construction of rayon mills planned by the Nippon Bemberg Silk Co.

RAYON EXPORTS

The more important of Japanese rayon exports are habutae, crepe and satin, and all the rayon exports amounted to ¥11,147,949 in value in the first half of 1929. The figures for the years 1927 and 1928 were ¥1,900,000 and ¥8,500,000 respectively.

The countries taking the greater part of the exports for the first half of the present year were British India, Hongkong, the Philippines, Kwantung Province, China, the Dutch Indies, and the Straits Settlement. Demand in these countries is growing for Japanese rayon goods. There is little export of rayon yarns as nearly whole output is used at home.

LEADING RAYON CONCERNS

	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital
The Teikoku Artificial Silk	21,000	21,000
The Toyo Rayon	10,000	10,000
The Asahi Silk Weaving	8,000	6,000
The Nippon Rayon	15,000	6,000
The Showa Rayon	12,000	7,800
The Kurashiki Rayon	10,000	3,500
The Tokyo Artificial Silk	10,000	2,500
The Miye Artificial Silk	1,000	675

(In thousands of yen)

The total output of all the rayon companies for this year is estimated roughly at 27,000,000 lb. All the companies have adopted the viscose process at their mills, excepting the Nippon Bemberg Artificial Silk Co., which has recently begun operation using the cuprammonium process.

RAYON INDUSTRY AS A BUSINESS

Generally the Japanese rayon companies are prosperous, the shareholders, who have paid in ¥57,475,000, having received ¥4,669,000, or a dividend of 16.25%, for the first half of the present year. So far, however, the rayon industry is in its infancy and will have to meet hardships in years to come. Still it may be safely said that ample prospects lie in sight for this industry.

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Japanese Agriculture

Some Characteristic Features

THE modern industrialization of Japan, which has been intensified in recent years, and the migration of rural populations to the cities are two factors causing great difficulties in Japanese agriculture. But this situation does not alter the fact that the very existence of Japan depends upon its remaining an agricultural country or weaken the most important rôle which agriculture plays in the economy of Japan's national life. Indeed, Japan has been referred to since ancient times as the land blessed with growing rice. The following statistics suffice to prove the accuracy of our view:

A. Statistics on families engaged in farming:

Disricts	Farming families	Percentag of total number of families	Farmers
Japan proper	5,549	49.3%	26,934
Korea	2,743	75.9%	14,648
Formosa	349	54.2%	2,340
Saghalien	9	23.4%	44
Total	8,694	55.6	43,935

(000's omitted)

B. Estimate of capital invested in various kinds of productive businesses in Japan proper.

Kinds of businesses	Capital invested	Percentage
Agriculture	¥347,000	47.1%
Commerce	130,000	17.6%
Industry	100,000	13.6%
Forestry	60,000	8.1%
Mining	40,000	6.8%
Communications ..	55,000	6.1%
Fisheries	5,000	0.7%
Total	737,000	100.0%

(000's omitted)

N. B.—The figures above, from rough estimates concerning Japan proper only, give a fair idea of general conditions.

The fact that farming families constitute 55.6 per cent. of all the families in Japan with an aggregate capital attaining 47.1 per cent. of the total amount invested in all kinds of businesses is one of the most oustanding features of Japanese agriculture and has an important influence upon the economic and social life of the nation as a whole. There can be no doubt that the development of the nation depends on the condition of its agriculture.

The most characteristic feature of Japanese agriuclture is evidently the fact that it is conducted on the principle of family management on a small scale. This is shown by the following figures concerning the number of farming families in 1926 classified according to the areas of land they cultivated:

Cultivated areas	Farming families	Percentage
Less than 5 tan	1,951,380	35%
,, ,, 1 cho	1,885,723	34%
,, ,, 2 cho	1,190,233	22%
,, ,, 3 cho	321,548	6%
,, ,, 5 cho	134,116	2%
More than 5 cho	72,157	1%
Total	5,555,157	100%

As seen above, cultivation management on an excessively small scale makes up 70 per cent. of the farming while that on a large scale, the cultivation of more than five *cho*, constitutes only one per cent. of the whole. It goes without saying that the development of small scale cultivation in Japanese agriculture is due to the physical features of Japan, which has numerous mountains and is rich in typographical variation. But apart from this natural reason, there is another important fact which accounts for Japanese agriculture remaining in the state of small scale management. Cultivation on a small scale, though inferior in productivity to cultivation on a large scale, is far superior in its capacity for feeding and supporting many people on a limited area. Consequently, in a land like Japan which suffers from excess of population, management on a small scale is not only the only possible system but also the most effective system, and furthermore it serves as a temporary refuge for the unemployed.

From the social point of view, it may be said that the family system, the most characteristic thing in our national life,

Mushroom-Hatted Peasant Women Weeding a Rice Field

is supported in large part by this family cultivation system in Japanese agriculture. In consequence, the Government is making special efforts to encourage the cultivation of land by free-holders by circulating a large sum of money out of the national insurance fund.

Another salient feature of Japanese agriculture is the fact that rice is par excellence the staple farm product of Japan, a large part of the total area cultivated being under rice as seen in the following statistics:

Districts	Total area cultivated	Area under rice cultivation
Japan proper	6,070 chobu	311 chobu
Korea	4,380 ,,	157 ,,
Formosa	800 ,,	38 ,,
Total	11,200 ,,	506 ,,

(000's omitted)

Thus, of the total area more than 50 per cent. in Janan proper, 35 per cent. in Korea and 48 per cent. in Formosa is devoted to rice paddies. This is due undoubtedly to the heavy rainfall in Japan and the nation's taste for rice, but a further reason is to be found in the fact that the number of people that can be fed on the rice raised in a limited area ismuch greater than the number that can be supported on any other food crop. The following figures show the calory content of the main agricultural products per *tan* and their capacity for feeding the human body. (Calculated on the basis that the human body requires 2,400 calories per day.)

Main produts	Output per *tan*	Calory content per *tan* (calories)	Cap acity for feeding the human body (days)
Rice (rough)..	190 sho	896,948	374
Barley	180	682,020	284
Wheat	120	578,054	241
Soy-beans ..	90	346,628	144
Potatoes.....	267	875,760	365
Sweet potatoes	348	1,461,600	609

In a land like Japan where the maximum number of people must live in the minimum space, the cultivation of rice is not only a question of national taste, but it has also a very important significance from the point of view of national economy. Therefore the government authorities and rural self-governing communities are striving always to increase the productivity of the tilled area through various projects, such as the adjustment of arable land, the improvement of drainage, and the establishment of a plan for the increased production of Korean rice.

Lastly, one more characteristic feature of Japanese agriculture is to be found in the high market price of arable land and the highness of rents. This is also due to Japan's special feature of scarcity of land and extreme density of population, phenomena which necessitate intensive cultivation. There are many different reports as to the price of arable land. The following figures are quoted from the report of the year 1928 issued by the Hypothec Bank of Japan:

Field	Per Tanbu Maximum	Medium	Min.
Paddy	¥712	¥538	¥
Upland	469	329	

The high price of land naturally causes high rents. The rent for land for the cultivation of rice in Japan is payed in kind. According to data collected by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, the tenant pays more than 50 per cent. of his products for paddy land and 30 to 40 per cent. for upland fields. In the latter case, the payment is made in money, rice, barley, wheat, soya-beans and other similar products.

The salient features mentioned above act in strict harmony with the social condition of the national life and contribute effectively to the economic welfare of the nation. But, at the same time, it cannot be denied that they involve difficulties which must be overcome. For instance, small scale family management makes inevitable obstinate pauperism in general while preventing the coming of unemployment storms. The encouragement of rice cultivation inevitably brings about drops in the price of rice and intensifies the social crisis we have just indicated, and the high rate of rent aggravates the difficult relations between the landowners and tenants, which have become seriously embittered recently owing to the awakening of the peasant class and the modern industrialization of the nation.

Looking Over His Ripening Rice

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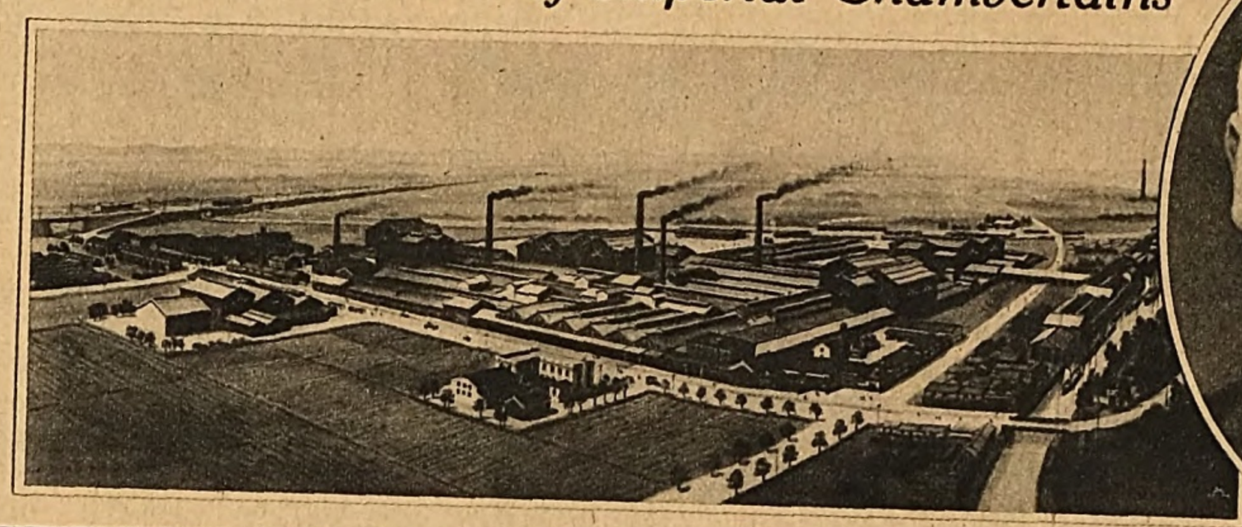

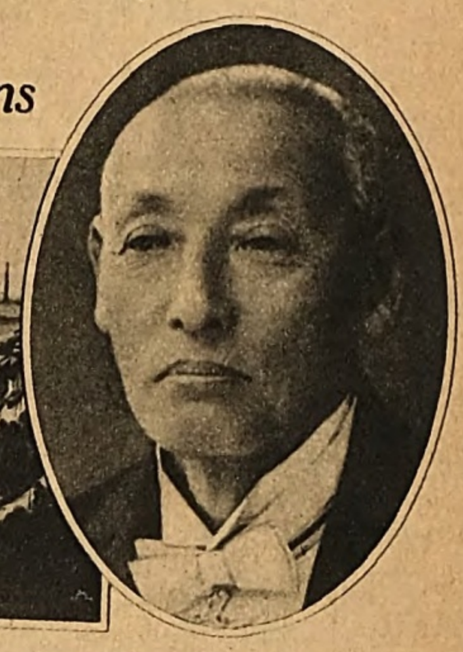

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General Survey of Japan's Finance and Economy

JAPAN, like the rest of the world, is still suffering from the post-bellum financial depression, which hit her harder than any other country because the reaction from the unprecedented economic boom that she enjoyed during the Great War was so great. On top of the post-bellum depression, the earthquake catastrophe of 1923 and the panic of April, 1927, increased her financial troubles. The consequence was the raising of a cry for economy. The immediate cause of this cry has been the tremendous falling off of the exchange value of the yen since 1927. When the resolution in connection with national thought, politics, and economics passed the Special Session of the Diet in April, 1928, financial and economic retrenchment became the national slogan, and even the Seiyukai Cabinet, whose political motto had been the "positive policy," had to declare for financial retrenchment. The financial depression from which Japan is now suffering is different in cause and circumstances from earlier financial depressions, so that in order to weather this storm, it is necessary to reestablish our financial framework, taking into consideration the changed circumstances of the world instead of aiming at a patched-up solution concerning itself only with domestic problems. With this object in view, the Government adopted a measure for accelerating the rationalization of the people's economic life by showing them a pattern of retrenchment. This measure should have been taken earlier, following the example of foreign countries that adopted retrenchment policies after the Great War. But Japan, which had been blessed with an economic boom during the war, did not awake to the real state of affairs until she was visited by such economic phenomena as a depression in foreign trade, an anti-Japanese boycott in China, a great fall in the rates of exchange, etc. This year the nation's cry for financial retrenchment had a great effect in political circles, and the Tanaka Seiyukai Cabinet collapsed because of the failure of its financial policy, although it resigned apparently in connection with the Anti-War Pact problem.

FINANCIAL POLICY OF THE HAMAGUCHI CABINET

As soon as the new Hamaguchi Cabinet was organized in July, this year, it announced the following policies: political enlightenment; revival of national spirit; enforcement of government discipline; amelioration of Sino-Japanese relations; attainment of disarmament; readjustment of finance and economy in expenditure; readjustment and reduction of public loans; lifting of the embargo on gold; improvement of educational facilities; establishment of a social policy, etc. Of the above policies, the improvement of financial and economic conditions is the most important as the professed mission of the new cabinet. The cabinet effected a radical curtailment in the budget for 1929, compiled by the preceding cabinet. Of the total amount of ¥1,777,000,000, ¥91,000,000 was cut out of the general budget, and ¥57,000,000 out of the special budget, thus reducing the total to ¥1,630,000,000 by economy and postponement. As regards the raising of public loans, the total amount of ¥198,000,000 in general and special accounts, decided upon by the previous cabinet, was reduced to ¥138,000,000, only half of which is to be raised in special accounts. The reparation payment from Germany amounting to ¥6,300,000 is added to the annual sinking fund amounting to ¥84,000,000, as provided by law; thus in 1930, the total amount of public loans to be redeemed will be ¥90,300,000, as against loans to be raised during the year amounting to ¥55,500,000, giving an increase of redemption of ¥35,000,000. It will thus be seen that the government has established a policy for reducing annually the public loans, which will not be increased to over the present sum, ¥6,000,000,000. The government also instructed the local authorities to adopt a retrenchment policy in local finances and dublic loans. The government's retrenchment policy will be fully carried out in the compilation of the budget for 1930.

LIFTING OF THE EMBARGO ON GOLD

Another great mission of the government is the lifting of the gold embargo.

The details of this problem are referred to on page 113 under the heading of "Lifting of the Gold Embargo."

GOLD RESERVE

(In million yen)

	At home	Abroad	Total
1917	128	212	341
1919	702	1,343	2,045
1920	1,116	1,062	2,178
(In this year Japanese finance entered the reaction period.)			
1921	1,225	855	2,080
1922	1,215	615	1,830
1923	1,208	445	1,653
(In this year the earthquake occurred.)			
1924	1,175	326	1,501
1925	1,155	258	1,413
1926	1,127	230	1,357
1927	1,087	186	1,273
(In April this year the panic occurred.)			
1928	1,085	114	1,199
1929 (at the end of March)	1,087	91	1,178

Recently the government increased the gold specie held abroad in preparation for the lifting of the embargo on gold, and for the regulation of rates of exchange, so that the present amount of the gold reserve abroad must be over ¥100,000,000. As shown elsewhere, the economic foundation of the country has not been destroyed by the two disasters. The present chaotic condition has been caused by the failure on the part of previous governments to formulate an economic policy to meet the post-bellum situation. In order to correct this disturbed financial state it is absolutely necessary to lift the gold embargo and restore Japan's finances to the normal path.

GENERAL SURVEY OF ECONOMIC CIRCLES

Economic circles in Japan are preparing for the lifting of the gold embargo and for this purpose, are carrying out the readjustment and rationalization of industries. The effects of economy and retrenchment have become visible in financial circles. The rate of exchange is ever becoming more favourable to Japan while the prices of commodities are falling month after month and the foreign trade shows an excess of export. In the meantime the merging and readjustment of enterprises is steadily progressing. Banks are gradually being merged. At the end of July this year, the number of ordinary banks throughout the country had been reduced to 986, showing a decrease of 609 as compared with the number before the panic of 1927. At present banks have large amounts of idle money and speculative transactions in commodities have been greatly reduced. Banks are only waiting for a time when, after the gold embargo has been lifted, they can start financial activity again, this time more rationally. It is believed that not only will the blow to Japanese financial circles from the lifting of the gold embargo be slight, but that it will, on the contrary, stimulate an epock-making financial readjustment and development. Financial circles in Japan are now only proceeding toward the goal of the lifting of the embargo, and although they are suffering from a great economic depression, it is only a sign of contraction before expansion. In view of the fact that the future economic war will be fought out in and around the Pacific, the business world of Japan is full of promise.

The Money Market

THE banking panic that overtook this country in the Spring of 1927 was so widespread and far-reaching in its effect that it has no parallel in Japan's banking history and probably will have none in the future either. It was, however, not without its good side, for it offered a good chance for clearing our economic structure of its weak and unsound factors. As many as 36 banks were closed during or after the panic. Such a big financial catastrophe could not be without its far-reaching influences upon the general economic condition of the country. Stock exchanges collapsed and prices of commodities suffered a sharp fall, and for some time general business transactions were as good as suspended.

How to deal with the closed banks was a great question, for the financial rehabilitation of the country depended upon it. The immediate cause of the disturbance was the failure to arrive at a solution of the problem relating to the disposal of the earthquake bills. (To relieve the banks holding bills secured on assets which had been destroyed by the earthquake of September, 1923, the Government had a special law enacted, because the insurance companies would not take any responsibility for losses arising from the earthquake.) The underlying cause of the trouble, however, was the lack of prudence on the part of the banks, which failed to take proper measures to deal with the situation arising from the financial reaction of 1920, and the general depression of trade that followed it.

This banking trouble brought about the downfall of the Wakatsuki Ministry. The new Government, which was formed under the premiership of Baron General Tanaka, convened an extraordinary session of the Diet, having for its purpose deliberation on a measure for rehabilitation of the credit and relief of the banks in difficulties. The Diet passed the law for relief of banks in difficulties in Japan proper, Chosen and Taiwan. The law authorized the Bank of Japan to make special loans to these banks under the Government's guaranty of indemnity. Thus by May 8, 1928, the special loans granted to the banks in difficulties, by the Bank of Japan under the Government guaranty reached the enormous sum of 879 million and a half yen (of which 191 million and a half yen was to the banks in Taiwan). The recipients of the special loans reached altogether 91 banks.

Thanks to this extraordinary measure taken by the Government and the Bank of Japan, the situation was stabilized and normal conditions were restored in the banking world. It was not, however, without its evil effect upon the financial situation of the country. The currency was unnaturally expanded, and this deprived the Bank of Japan of its controlling power over the currency. Funds accumulated unproportionately in the bigger banks, and while the smaller ones were hard up from lack of funds, the bigger ones were overwhelmed with unwieldy amounts of deposits which were continually pouring in. The money rate fell off, which stimulated the issue of debentures, and Government bonds and shares made a jump. It was rather ironical that the stock market alone should enjoy unusual activity when business in general was suffering from heavy depression. Both the Government and the Bank of Japan took warning from this unnatural state of things, which it was feared would undermine the economic life of the country, and in order to check the abnormality, measures were adopted to press for the repayment of the special loans, and at the same time Government bond holdings of the Bank of Japan were disposed of. By this measure the Bank intended to absorb the surplus funds from the market and thus to regain its control over the currency of the country. The empty boom being thus checked, the Government could now set about the readjustment and stabilization of the banking situation of the country.

The new banking law came into force in January, 1928, and under this law the Government urged the merger of weaker concerns, and by July, 1928, it was able to reduce the number of commercial banks to 986, which was a contraction of 609 as compared with the number just before the outbreak of the panic.

The banking panic of 1927 marked a turning point in the financial history of the country. Weak points were removed from the system, a fundamental readjustment was effected, and a foundation for future development and expansion was laid. We here give a short review of the situation after the banking panic of 1927.

The year 1927 was spent wholly in the relief of weaker concerns, and in 1928 a step forward was taken in the financial readjustment. The panic cost Japan many sacrifices, and yet our banking came out of it healthier and stronger than before, for it was cleared of all its diseases. The banking readjustment, however, coincided with a depression in our export trade, which was further intensified by the civil strife in China, and the high interest rate in the United States, which drained our funds thither to no small extent and had an influence in many quarters, especially in our foreign exchange. The Yen—Dollar exchange, which stood at about 48 dollars to 100 yen in the Spring of 1928, made a sharp curve downward and in the summer touched 44¾ dollars.

Such a violent fluctuation in exchange was anything but favourable to our foreign trade, which suffered seriously from it, and business in general was depressed. In the lack of demand for funds, or rather in the absence of any safe investments, the banks had to hold large amounts unemployed.

In June, 1928, France at last lifted the ban on gold shipments, which greatly stimulated our bankers. In October the representatives of the bigger banks in Tokyo and Osaka held a conference and made representations to the Government, demanding the immediate removal of the gold embargo. By the solution of this problem they hoped that international economic cooperation and the rationalization of the economic structure might be attained, and the prevailing business depression might thereby be averted.

This movement told upon the foreign exchange, which turned upward, and by October the Yen—Dollar exchange advanced to 48½ dollars. During the year 1928 the Yokohama Specie Bank altered its quotation 91 times, and the difference between the high and the low was as large as 3¼ dollars. Such violent fluctuations of exchange damaged our foreign trade, and how the bankers suffered from it may be easily understood. The year 1928 was really a trying one in our economic

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re was a heavy depression in business the one side, and on the other a vement for the removal of the gold bargo, and these factors combined bring about violent fluctuations in hange.

The year 1929 found the economic ld further depressed, the slackness demand for funds for any enter- ing purposes was further intensified, business was as dull as could be. e funds waiting idly for employment the coffers of banks went on in- asing, which obliged the banks to lare a reduction of interest on osits from February 1. Govern- t bonds were made the prime object investment for these idle funds. bankers became very conservative their steps, for the demand for justment of the financial structure step toward the removal of the embargo made them exceedingly ious. Under these circumstances granting of loans was minimized, ch had the result of only increasing idle funds in the banks.

n the 2nd of July, the Tanaka ernment collapsed and was suc- ded the next day by the Hamaguchi istry. Upon the assumption of er, the new Government published atement emphasizing the retrench- t of Government expenditures and arations for the removal of the embargo, and exhorting general omy and thrift among the people. Government was as good as its for it set an example by carrying drastic retrenchment policy and poning Government undertakings. his conservative policy of the Gov- ent and the general contraction nsumption by the people appeared nake business, which was already iently dull, still duller. Beneath his discouraging outlook, however, situation was steadily improving. e July the foreign trade has been ing a favourable showing, and hange has materially improved. the first time in two or there years a ht prospect has been sighted in future, for normal conditions are g restored in our economic world. response to the rehabilitation of economic world, the banking in- tions, when the work of readjust- ment has been completed, will take steps toward the rationalization of their business, following the lead of the big five, the Mitsubishi, Mitsui, Daiichi, Yasuda and Sumitomo Bank. Theses big banks among them have deposits amounting to 3,200 million yen, which more than equals the deposits of all other clearing house member banks in the country put together.

Below is a comparison of conditions in the money market in July, the quietest month in the year, for the last three years :

		1927	1928	1929
Money Rate	Official Rate	1.6 sen p.d.	1.5	1.5
	Interest on Fixed Deposit	5.5% p.a.	5%	4.5%
	Market Discount Rate	from 2.06 sen p.d.	1.66	1.44
		to 2.46 „ „	2.27	2.12
	Call Loans (Lowest)	1.1 „ „	0.4	0.75
		(in thousands of yen)		
Condition of Member Banks	Deposits	5,157,554	5,911,410	6,090,232
	Loans	5,120,406	5,390,261	5,352,607
		(in thousands of yen)		
Condition of the Bank of Japan	Note Issue	1,332,592	1,330,697	1,344,747
	Loans	874,056	793,546	704,396
	Government Deposit	752,907	616,810	439,125
	Private Deposit	264,309	340,879	427,973
		(,000 omitted)		
Turn-over of all Clearing Houses	Number of Bills Cleared	2,851	3,184	3,403
	Amount of Bills Cleared	¥4,219,659	6,246,218	5,595,940

The outstanding feature in our banking world is the contraction of the number of banks, which was brought about chiefly by the merger of weaker concerns, and their closure. Trsut companies, insurance companies and the Post Office Savings Bank increased their strength enormously.

It was only six years ago that trust companies came into existence under the trust law, newly enacted. Before the banking panic their resources were limited. During the period of violent movement of deposits that followed the panic, vast amounts of deposits poured into the trust companies. The reduction of interest on deposits by banks declared in the spring of 1928 offered another chance for the trust companies to still further augment their resources. Thus the trust companies and insurance companies have now great influence in the money market.

The rapid growth of the resources of trust companies is shown below :

	1927 (July)	1928 (July)	1929 (July)
	(In thousands of yen)		
Trust Deposits	584,808	921,381	1,146,409

The savings in the Post Office Savings Bank have also increased as follows :

	1927 (July)	1928 (July)	1929 (July)
Post Office Savings Deposits	1,499,035	1,716,098	1,967,484

The insurance companies have also increased their resources enormously in recent years. The total assets of 42 life insurance companies (Conscription insurance companies excluded) at the end of June, 1929, amounted to ¥1,352,284,000 as follows :

	(In thousands of yen)
Deposits	299,472
Investments	749,310
Real Estate	80,007

This is an increase of over 60 million yen during the year.

The cooperative guilds, organs for supplying credit to the masses, are making rapid development both in urban and rural districts, and are playing an important role in giving financial aid to the masses.

The banking disturbance of 1927 marks a turning point in the economic life of the country. It gave an occasion for the radical readjustment of our banking world, and started it on a course of sound and normal development. In one sense, therefore, the panic may be called a good in disguise.

It is undeniable that the tremendous increase of Japanese exports in 1928 was more or less due to the decline of Swedish exports to Oriental countries resulting from the lock-out carried out by Swedish mill owners in the recent labour conflict ; but it is attributable chieflyto the fact that Japanese products gradually drove out those of foreign countries from the Chinese market, by virtue of their advantageous position in price and freight. Divided according to destination, the export figures for the year 1928 were as follows : (000 pounds and 000 yen omitted).

Destination	Quantity	Percentage	Value	Percentage
China ..	106,139	72.2%	14,599	63.4%
Kwantung	20,912	14.2	3,466	15.0
Hongkong	11,412	7.7	1,491	6.4
United States ..	1,802	1.2	1,320	5.7
Others ..	7,356	4.7	2,134	9.5
Total ..	146,821	100	23,010	100

The consumption of foreign style paper has increased tremendously in Japan during the past few years. The total amount consumed during 1928 amounted to some 1,209,000,000 pounds, or 2.8 times that for the year 1918, when the war boom was on. The average annual percentage of increase during the past 17 years has been 12 per cent.

That unlike the consumption of general goods, which are liable to be greatly affcted by financial conditions, the consumption of foreign paper alone is steadily increasing year by year, without relation to financial conditions, may be attributed to the fact that foreign style paper is one of the most important necessaries in our ever developing cultural life. Therefore, it is only natural that we should see an increasing demand for foreign style paper in Japan as long as Japanese civilization does not come to a standstill, or the population does not greatly decrease.

Stocks Increasf Remarkably

So far, we have considered the demand and supply of foreign style paper separately, but it is important to look into the relation between them. As Japan's production keeps expanding faster than the rate of consumption, supply is constantly apt to show an excess over demand, keeping the relation in an unfavourable condition. The tendency in this direction has been remarkably strong in recent years. Stocks of foreign style paper, which amounted to about 130,000,000 pounds at the end of 1920, have resumed their increase, after having fallen off for some years since 1924 ; and in 1928, they amounted to the tremendous amount of some 185,000,000 pounds.

The Paper Industry

General Tendency of Demand and Supply of Japanese "Foreign Style Paper"

is natural that Japan, with her vilization ever progressing and ading, should be increasing her umption of foreign style paper y year. Japan's foreign style paper stry, which has undergone many ges since it was started, has made nishing progress both in quantity art of production ; and has con- lated its foundations among her strial activities. As a result, Japa- exports of paper have been grad- gaining over imports in recent s.

Production Increases and Imports Decrease

he production of foreign style paper Japan is increasing every year. total output in the year 1912, h amounted to only 251,000,000 nds, doubled in 1918 with the den leap brought about by the at War ; and in 1928 it rose to some 5,000,000 pounds, or more than times the figure for 1912. The exception to this steady tendency increase was in 1921, when the res showed a decline by 5.6 per t. as compared with the previous as the result of a production tation of 20 per cent. on printing er and "mozo" (medium printing) paper, carried out by Japanese manufacturers in view of the world-wide financial depression following the war boom.

On the other hand, imports of paper have been on the gradual decrease. The imports, which amounted to about 7,940,000 pounds in 1912, making up about 32 per cent. of total supply, dropped to about 1,700,000 pounds in 1917, due to the stoppage of imports from Europe. Then after the fluctuations prevailing for some years, the year 1924 recorded such large figures as 184,000,000 pounds, after which time, import figures continued to drop until they reached about 100,000,000 pounds in 1928, making up only 6.4 per cent. of the total supply for the year. It should, however, be taken into consideration that the large amount of imports in 1924 was due to speculative purchases from abroad to meet the temporary heavy demand immediately after the great earthquake disaster. Although instability of foreign exchange was partly responsible for the decline of paper imports, the major factor accountable for this was the successful achievement by Japanese manufacturers in cutting down the cost of production and in making the standard of quality and variety of their products comparable with those of foreign countries by means of advanced art in mass production and rationalization of management.

In short, the total supply of foreign style paper in Japan has been steadily treading an upward path every year, with the exception of the year 1921. The following table gives the figures for the trends in demand and supply during the past 17 years :

(Unit : 000 pounds)

Year	Brought Over	Output	Imports	Total Supply	Exports	Consumption Domestic	Total Demand	Stocks
1912 ..	31,128	251,377	79,181	361,686	15,754	318,258	334,012	27,674
1913 ..	27,174	295,893	83,337	406,904	16,311	358,686	374,997	31,904
1914 ..	31,607	227,614	57,768	417,289	16,492	360,315	376,807	40,482
1915 ..	40,982	367,579	28,210	436,271	29,516	355,403	384,919	51,352
1916 ..	51,452	305,469	38,043	494,864	58,464	360,924	419,388	65,476
1917 ..	65,376	455,000	17,551	538,027	65,277	394,401	456,678	74,349
1918 ..	74,449	498,965	37,742	611,056	55,920	448,083	504,003	107,053
1919 ..	107,053	519,142	62,138	688,333	56,849	524,840	581,689	106,644
1920 ..	106,644	565,926	61,080	733,650	40,795	562,267	603,062	130,588
1921 ..	130,588	534,450	49,418	714,456	60,759	556,168	626,927	87,529
1922 ..	87,529	629,343	123,502	840,374	65,290	696,461	761,752	78,623
1923 ..	78,623	729,508	118,047	926,178	67,202	794,027	861,229	64,949
1924 ..	64,949	817,383	184,190	1,066,522	74,572	889,506	964,078	142,444
1925 ..	102,444	931,773	98,772	1,132,989	89,367	948,103	1,047,470	85,519
1926 ..	85,519	1,074,648	141,643	1,301,810	84,153	1,066,277	1,150,430	151,380
1927 ..	151,380	1,151,515	113,173	1,416,068	87,938	1,152,545	1,246,483	175,585
1928 ..	175,585	1,305,755	100,505	1,581,846	146,822	1,249,666	1,396,488	185,357

Note :—Figures for the output of the non-association mills are not available.

Turning to a consideration of the demand for Japanese foreign style paper, the exports, generally speaking, have been on the increase, though not without some fluctuations. The exports, which amounted to only about 15,000,000 pounds in 1912, gained by 26 per cent. in the year 1918 ; and the year 1928 set a new high level with exports of about 140,000,000 pounds, or more than eight times those for the year 1912.

(As the above figures are only those published by warehousing companies, they would be much larger if the stocks in mills and the godowns of wholesale dealers were added). The fact that the rate of increase of year-end stocks is higher than the rates of increase of demand and supply, indicates that the rate of consumption does not keep pace with the production. Relations between demand, supply and year-end stocks during the past ten years, as indicated by the index numbers, are shown in the following table :

(*Continued on Page 141*)

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THE

Yokohama Specie Bank,

Limited

ESTABLISHED . . 1880

Capital, Paid-up . . Yen 100,000,000

Reserve Fund . . . Yen 108,500,000

HEAD OFFICE:

YOKOHAMA.

BRANCHES and AGENCIES

Alexandria, Batavia, Bombay, Culcutta, Canton, Changchun, Dairen, Fengtien, Hamburg, Hankow, Harbin, Hongkong, Honolulu, Kaiyuang, Karachi, Kobe, London, Los Angeles, Lyons, Marunouchi (Tokyo), Manila, Nagasaki, Nagoya, Newchang, New York, Osaka, Peiping, Rangoon, Rio de Janeiro, Saigon, San Francisco, Seattle, Semarang, Shanghai, Shimonoseki, Singapore, Sourabaya, Sydney, Tokyo, Tientsin, Tsinan, Tsingtau, Vladivostock, Buenos Aires (Temporarily closed)

Correspondents at all the chief commercial cities of the world

The Bank of Japan

HEAD OFFICE:

TOKYO, JAPAN.

BRANCHES:

OSAKA, MOJI, NAGOYA, OTARU, KYOTO, FUKUSHIMA, HIROSHIMA, HAKODATE, NIIGATA MATSUE, KANAZAWA, MATSUMOTO, AKITA, OKAYAMA, KUMAMOTO.

The

Sumitomo Bank, Ltd.

Head Office: Kitahama, Osaka, Japan.

ESTABLISHED NOVEMBER, 1895
INCORPORATED MARCH, 1912

Capital Subscribed . Yen 70,000,000
Capital Paid-up . . Yen 50,000,000
Reserve Funds . . . Yen 28,180,000

HOME OFFICES:

Osaka (26), Tokyo (17), Yokohama, Nagoya (2), Kyoto (3), Kobe (3), Okayama, Onomichi, Niihama, Kure, Hiroshima (3), Yanai, Shimonoseki, Moji, Kokura, Wakamatsu, Fukuoka (2), Kurume (2) and Kumamoto.

FOREIGN OFFICES:

London, New York, San Francisco, Los Angeles, Sacramento, Seattle, Honolulu, Bombay, Shanghai and Hankow.

CORRESPONDENTS:

Maintained in all important places at home and abroad.

General Banking and Foreign Exchange Business Transacted.

The

Thirty-Fourth Bank, Ltd.

Capital Subscribed:
Yen 52,200,000

HEAD OFFICE:

Koraibashi, 4-chome,
OSAKA, JAPAN.

Cable Address:
"SANSHI GINKO" OSAKA

Branches & Correspondents:
In the Principle cities and town at home and abroad.

Agents:
For the Honkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation.

Special facilities for Over-Seas Trade.

EVERY DESCRIPTION OF BANKING, FOREIGN EXCHANGE, AND TRUST COMPANY BUSINESS TRANSACTED.

THE MITSUI BANK, LTD.

Capital Subscribed:
Yen 100,000,000
Capital Paid-up:
Yen 60,000,000
Reserve Funds:
Yen 64,700,000

HEAD OFFICE:

No. 1 Surugacho, Nihonbashi-ku, TOKYO.

HOME BRANCHES:

Fukuoka, Hiroshima, Kobe, Kyoto, Marunouchi (Tokyo), Moji, Nagasaki, Nagoya, Nihonbashi (Tokyo), Osaka-Dojima, Osaka-Kawaguchi, Osaka-Nishi, Otaru, Shimonoseki, Wakamatsu (Kyushu), Yokohama.

FOREIGN BRANCHES:

Bombay, London, New York, Shanghai, Sourabaya.

LONDON BANKERS:

Barclays Bank, Ltd.
Midland Bank, Ltd.

NEW YORK BANKERS:

Bankers Trust Co.
Chase National Bank.
National City Bank of New York.

THE

YAMAGUCHI BANK, LTD.

ESTABLISHED 1864

Cable Address: "YAMAGBANK" OSAKA

Capital Subscribed:
Yen 50,000,000

HEAD OFFICE:

OSAKA, JAPAN.

Branches and Correspondents in all parts of Japan.

LONDON AGENTS:

Barclays Bank, Ltd.
The Equitable Trust Co. of New York.
Lloyds Bank, Ltd.
The National City Bank of New York.
The Bank of Taiwan, Ltd.
The Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd.

NEW YORK AGENTS:

The Equitable Trust Co. of New York.
Guaranty Trust Co. of New York.
Irving Trust Company.
The National City Bank of New York.
The Bank of Taiwan, Ltd.
The Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd.

The Mitsubishi Bank, Limited.

Capital . . Yen 100,000,000
Reserve Fund Yen 41,460,000

MANZO KUSHIDA Chairman
KIYOSHI SEJIMO Managing Directors
TAKEO KATO "
SOBUN YAMAMURO "

HEAD OFFICE:

No. 5 Marunouchi Nichome, Kojimachi-ku, TOKYO.

BRANCHES—HOME:

Eitaibashi (Tokyo), Tokio Kaijo Building (Tokyo), Marunouchi Building (Tokyo), Nihonbashi (Tokyo), Yotsuya (Tokyo), Komagome (Tokyo), Nihonbashi Tericho (Tokyo), Kanda (Tokyo), Shinagawa (Tokyo), Omori (Tokyo), Osaka, Nakanoshima (Osaka), Semba (Osaka), Nishinagahori (Osaka), Kobe, Sannomiya (Kobe), Kyoto, Nagoya, Otaru.

BRANCHES—OVERSEAS:

SHANGHAI OFFICE: No. 2, Kiukiang Road, Shanghai.
LONDON OFFICE: No. 3, Birchin Lane, Cornhill, London, E. C. 3.
NEW YORK OFFICE: No. 120, Broadway, New York.

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Government Finance

Economy and Retrenchment

THE budget for 1929 was the first one formulated by the Tanaka Government embodying the policies of the Seiyukai, of which he is the president, that passed by the Diet. General Baron Tanaka formed the cabinet in April, 1927. The fifty-third session of the Diet, which was convened soon after the organization of the Tanaka Ministry, was an extraordinary session and did not vote on the budget. The next session of the Diet was dissolved, and the budget fell through. The next session, the fifty-fifth, was an extraordinary one. It voted only for a supplementary budget, and at the fifty-sixth session of the Diet the Tanaka Government was able to introduce its own budget and get it adopted for the first time in the life of the government.

The new budget was an enormous one, surpassing all previous figures. The disbursements under the general account amounted to ¥1,773,567,000. The disbursements on the special accounts, being added thereto the total net disbursements aggregated ¥3,839,195,000. The total revenues were put at ¥3,963,388,000.

Below is a comparison of the revenues and expenditures in the present budget with those of the working budget of the preceding year:

ments have shown no zeal for carrying out a thorough retrenchment of expenditures and alleviating the burdens of the people. Economy and retrenchment in national finance is the pressing need of the day. It should not be simply a plank in the platform of any particular party. It is a problem in the solution of which the whole nation must join.

The Tanaka Government, which advocated a positive policy, announced its intention to adopt all possible measures for the encouragement and furtherance of industry, in spite of the paucity of resources available for any additional disbursement, and appeared to be little concerned with the expansion of government expenditures. There were, however, acute cash difficulties, and when the cabinet came to compile the budget, the demands for allotments for new enterprises by the departments amounted to altogether 300 million yen, against which the available resources were only 50 millions. It was evident that the positive policy that the Seiyukai had long advocated was hard of realization, and each minister had to put ud with the allotment of 10 or 20 per cent. of his new demands. Most of the government's new schemes that called for the creation of special accounts, such as the plans for the creation of independent farmers, the control of fertilizers, etc. failed to pass the Diet. The only features in the budget that embodied the policy of the Tanaka Cabinet were the schemes described below:

(1) The furtherance of industry is the important part of the Tanaka Government's policy, and disbursements of ¥26,800,000 were newly allotted in the budget for this purpose. In these new disbursements were included those for the reconstruction of roads, the exploitation of Hokkaido, the protection of forestry, the extension of improvements in telephone service, and many other public works, and, consequently the appropriations for each item were rather trifling.

(2) Irrigation and harbour construction are strongly advocated by the Seiyukai Party, and an allotment of ¥2,267,000 for the former and about ¥1,200,000 for the latter was made in the budget.

(3) Railways. (We shall deal with this subject later.)

(4) For colonial development a sum of over ¥7,600,000 was allotted. In this are included expenditures for the creation of the Department for Overseas Affairs. We shall describe this subject in detail later.

(5) As a part of its social policy, the government alloted in the budget about ¥2,600,000 for betterment of the treatment of and allowances to soldiers and marines, and about two million yen for the improvement of the working conditions of employees of the Department of Communications.

The Seiyukai's positive policies, as embodied in the budget, are rather discouraging when compared with the extensive advertising the party had long been doing. Only a trifling sum was allotted for new schemes. It will be seen that the national resources have been so far exhausted that they do not permit of any large addition to the expenditures of the government.

An examination of the budget will reveal what difficulties the government had to fight against in order to make the appropriations for positive schemes. Some expenditures which should from their very nature be met by ordinary revenues, were managed by the issue of loans, and the surplus was almost exhausted, leaving only ¥1,800,000 for the next year, the smallest surplus on record.

The above is said of the general account. The special accounts are rather technical, and therefore we shall here deal with such common subjects as railways and colonial accounts.

REVENUES
(In thousands of yen)

	1929	1928	Increase (+) or Decrease (−)	
Ordinary Revenues				
Taxes	897,582	901,476	(−)	3,894
Stamp Duties	86,247	79,157	(+)	7,090
Receipts from Government Enterprises and Properties	490,721	473,568	(+)	17,155
Sundry Receipts	18,659	19,617	(−)	958
Transfer from Deposit Accounts	5,300	3,323	(+)	1,977
Transfer from Funds for Improvement of Education and Aid to Rural Villages	8,141	7,446	(+)	695
Total	1,506,651	1,484,590	(+)	22,061
Extraordinary Revenues				
Issue of Loans	91,201	64,000	(+)	27,201
Transfer from Surplus of Preceding Year	89,780	127,141	(−)	37,361
Others	85,933	45,323	(+)	40,610
Total	266,915	236,464	(+)	30,451
Grand Total	1,773,567	1,721,055	(+)	52,512

EXPENDITURES
(In thousands of yen)

	1929	1928	Increase (+) or Decrease (−)	
Ordinary Expenditures				
Redemption of Government Bonds out of Treasury Surplus	13,128	25,730	(−)	12,602
Interest on Reconstruction Loan Bonds	30,844	27,120	(+)	3,724
Others	1,188,352	1,157,085	(+)	31,267
Total	1,232,324	1,209,937	(+)	22,387
Extraordinary Expenditures				
Reconstruction of Metropolis	73,609	62,058	(+)	11,551
Other Reconstruction Expenditures	46,624	51,343	(−)	4,719
Others	421,008	397,715	(+)	23,293
Total	541,242	511,118	(+)	30,124
Grand Total	1,773,567	1,721,055	(+)	52,512

The growth of national finance is the general tendency in all countries, and is no special feature of this country alone. In Europe and America, however, they have succeeded in restoring normal conditions to their vastly expanded post-bellum finances, but our government expenditures have been fast growing year by year even after the war. Thus comparing them with the government expenditures for 1920, which were ¥1,359,978,000, we find an increase of 410 million yen in the budget expenditures for the present fiscal year, an increase of about 30 per cent. Considering that prices have declined some 30 per cent. in the internal, the increase of 30 per cent. in the actual figures would indicate a considerably larger growth of expenditures than would appear.

Since 1920 contraction has been effected in all branches of business and industry and the economic world in general, while on the other hand national finance alone has showed no sign of reduction, but gone on growing, and the burden has borne heavily on the people. Still the successive govern-

RAILWAY SPECIAL ACCOUNT
Revenues and Expenditures in the Budget, 1929
(In thousands of yen)

	1929	1928
Capital Account	225,148	193,317
Stock Account	228,159	223,004
Profit Account	676,996	514,000

The construction of railways is another pet of the Tanaka Government. The government increased the previous allotment of ¥56,500,000 to 80 millions, and on the other hand decreased the disbursement for up-keep and improvement from 170 million yen to 145 millions. Thus the total of the capital investment amounted to 225 million yen. This is met by the following resources:

Issue of Loans	¥ 80,000,000
Allotment from Railway Profits	143,000,000
Other Resources	2,000,000

With this fund the government planned to construct new lines.

COLONIAL SPECIAL ACCOUNTS
Budget for 1929
(In thousands of yen)

	1929	1928
Chosen	246,852	222,674
Taiwan	126,125	109,246
Kwantung Prov.	24,091	20,874
South Sea Islands	5,242	4,672
Karafuto	33,037	117,340

The budget included the issue of government loans to the amount of 198 million yen in general and special accounts.

The first budget embodying the policy of the Tanaka Government passed the Diet and was legalized. When, however, the government came to work upon it, the cabinet failed, and in July a new government was formed under the premiership of Mr. Hamaguchi, the president of the Minseito, the Opposition Party. Mr. J. Inouye, the ex-Governor of the Bank of Japan, was given the portfolio of the Finance Department. Economy and retrenchment and the lifting of the gold embargo formed the two principal policies of the new government. The former is the offspring of the negative policy advocated by the Minseito Party. By the enforcement of economy and retrechment, the Hamaguchi government aims at the improvement of national finance, and thereby the solution of the important question of the removal of the ban on the free shipment of gold, which underlies all the financial difficulties of the country.

The first step that the new Government took upon its inauguration was the compilation of a working budget by carrying out reductions in the established budget and postponing all new enterprises sanctioned by the Diet. Thus the government was able to save 28 million yen by economy and 62 and a half million yen by the postponement of public works. The Tanaka Government schemed to defray out of the funds of the general account raised by the issue of loans the Tokyo reconstruction expenditure for the year, amounting to 40 million yen, but in the working budget this item is scheduled to be paid out of funds saved by economy in expenditures in the general account. Some of the irrigation and road construction works, which are not a pressing need, have been abandoned, and some public works have been postponed, and thus much improvement has been effected in the finance. The government are planning to draw up the budget for the next year on a principle of rigid economy and retrenchment in public expenses.

Below is a comparison of the working budget published by the Government at the end of July with the established budget for the year.

REVENUES
(In thousands of yen)

	Working Budget	Established Budget	Comparison (Decrease)
Ordinary Revenues	1,504,607	1,506,651	2,044
Special Revenues			
Loans	51,964	91,201	39,237
Transfer from Surplus	56,833	89,780	32,947
Others	68,905	85,933	17,028
Total	177,703	266,915	89,212
Grand Total	1,682,310	1,773,567	91,257

EXPENDITURES
(In thousands of yen)

	Working Budget	Established Budget	Comparison (Decrease)
Ordinary Expenditures	1,223,689	1,232,324	8,635
Extraordinary Expenditure	458,621	541,242	82,621
Total	1,682,310	1,773,567	91,257

So far we have been speaking of the general account. The special accounts have also been cut down, 23 million yen being saved by economy, and 34 millions by postponement of works. Thus a total of 57 million yen has been saved in the special accounts. The total issue of loans in the general account and special accounts of the established budget amounted to 198 million yen, but this sum has been reduced to 140 millions in the working budget.

Cutting down a budget which has once passed the Diet and been established, without the consent of the Diet, would seem rather absurd from the point of view of the Diet's right to vote the budget. In fact, the Seiyukai, is loud in its criticism of this working budget as a breach of the constitution. The government, however, takes the stand that in no point does the government's step conflict with the constitution. In aid of their argument the government cites three precedents, where the established budget was cut down in the working budget without the consent of the Diet.

(Continued on Page 150)

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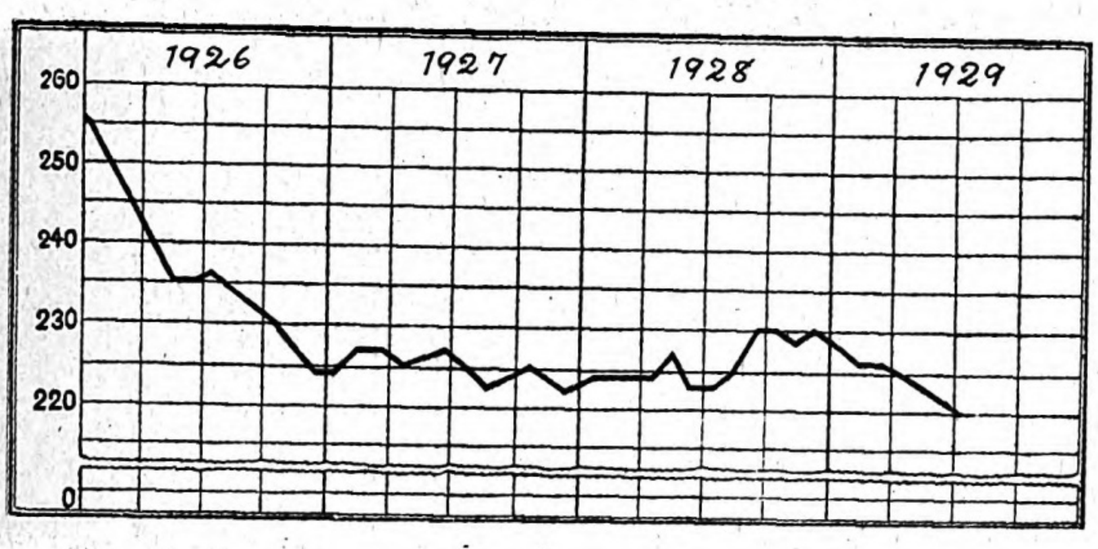
Prices of Commodities and Wages

PRICES

THE average for the year 1928 of the index numbers of wholesale prices in Tokyo calculated by the Bank of Japan was 226 (Oct. 1900=100). This is one point higher than the average for the preceding year. This betrayed the general expectation, for prices had followed a downward course continually since 1924, as below:

Year		Year	
1919	312	1924	273
1920	343	1925	267
1921	265	1926	237
1922	259	1927	225
1923	263	1928	226



Index Number of Average Monthly Wholesale Prices in Tokyo (Oct. 1900–100)

The factors that cause changes in prices are many and varied. The relations between these causes and the essential causes in the commodities themselves are very complicated. For these reasons it is rather difficult to name the definite causes that brought about the rise in 1928. For convenience of reference, we give below the course of foreign exchange and the amounts of note issue of the Bank of Japan for the last ten years:

Year	Average Price Index	Average of Exchange on N. Y.		Note Issue (Million Yen)
1919	312	50 5/8	dollars	1,555
1920	343	49 5/8	,,	1,439
1921	265	48.—	,,	1,546
1922	259	48 3/8	,,	1,558
1923	263	48 7/8	,,	1,703
1924	273	42.—	,,	1,662
1925	267	40 3/4	,,	1,631
1926	237	46 7/8	,,	1,569
1927	225	47 3/8	,,	1,682
1928	226	46 3/8	,,	1,739

It will be seen that the prices move inversely to the rise of exchange, and the expansion of the note issue has an important influence on the prices. Below are shown the monthly fluctuations in these figures in 1928:

	Price Index	Exchange on N. Y.		Note Issue (In million yen)
January ..	224	46.85	dollars	1,424
February	224	46.87	,,	1,330
March ..	224	46.99	,,	1,354
April	224	47.82	,,	1,362
May	227	46.63	,,	1,299
June	223	46.59	,,	1,462
July	223	46.02	,,	1,330
August ..	225	45.11	,,	1,371
September	230	45.75	,,	1,308
October ..	230	46.22	,,	1,396
November	229	46.42	,,	1,389
December	230	45.94	,,	1,739

Although the average of price indexes for the year 1928 indicates a rise of one point over that of the preceding year, yet a closer examination of each item reveals the fact that the rise was not the general trend, but on the contrary there was a continual downward movement, as evidenced by the trend of the staple commodity prices.

The Yearly Average of Price Indexes of Ten Staple Commodities

Articles	1928	1927	1926	1925
Rice	262	298	319	353
Wheat	223	228	252	289
Sugar	277	295	287	309
Raw Silk	168	175	207	252
Cotton Yarn ..	246	230	244	340
Timber	190	195	203	227
Steel	108	101	106	123
Copper	138	123	130	142
Paper	198	202	217	240
Coal	297	309	288	300

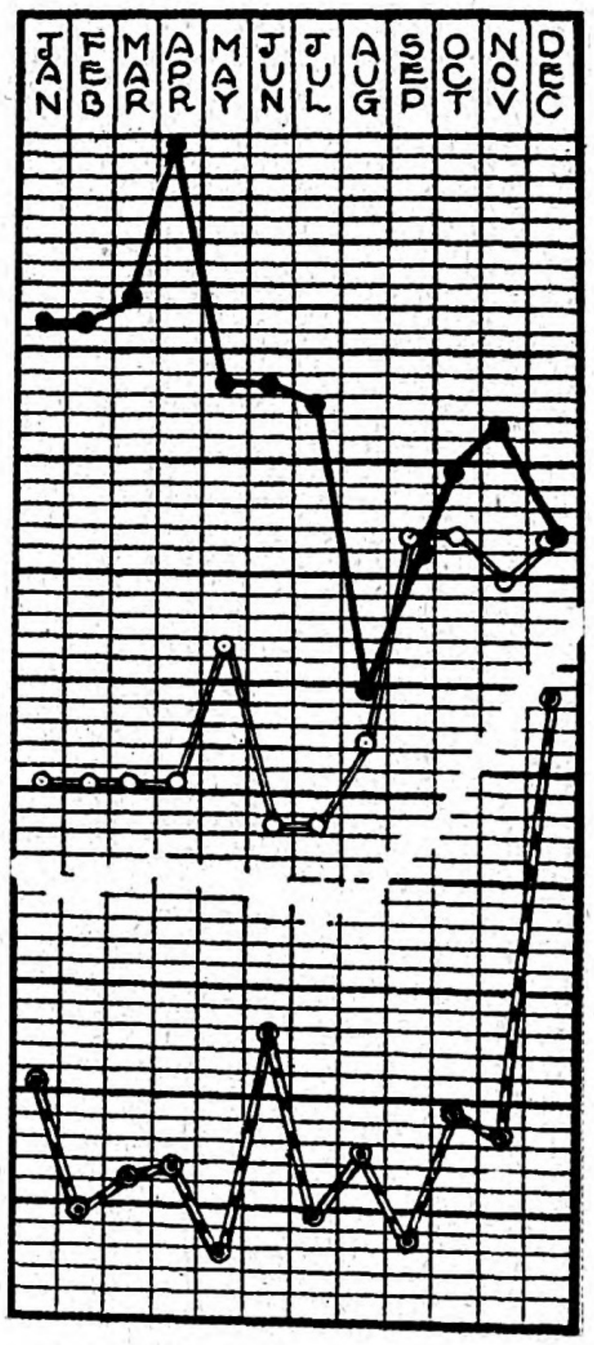
It may be seen from the above table that out of the ten staple commodities, it was only cotton yarn, steel and copper that showed an advance over the average for the preceding year. In the case of cotton yarn the advance was due to the rise in raw cotton and the curtailment of production on the part of the mills for the purpose of pushing up the prices. The high prices of copper and steel were attributable to the strong tones obtaining abroad. It may, therefore, be seen that in spite of the rise of one point in the general average of the price indexes, intrinsically the prices are following a downward trend.

The downward movement of prices in general became apparent in 1929, and in the first eight months this year the monthly average of price indexes recorded a fall of 10 points, as may be seen from the following table:

Monthly Averages, 1929

January ..	228	May	223
February .	226	June	222
March....	226	July	220
April	225	August ...	218

The steady and continuous fall of prices show that prices in Japan are drawing near world price levels. Prices assumed a decidedly weak tone this year, and declined continuously month after month. This trend was further intensified by the Minseito Party coming into power in the beginning of June. The new government, under the premiership of Mr. Hamaguchi, announced upon its assumption of office a policy of economy and retrenchment, and set about its execution.



Comparative Table of Exchange Rates, Commodity Prices and Note Issues
Exchange Rates (Japan-America)
Commodity Prices
Note Issues

For the sake of comparison we may give below the average price indexes in London, New York, Paris and Tokyo.

Comparative Wholesale Price Levels in Principal Countries

(July 1914=100)

Date	Tokyo Bank of Japan	London Economist	New York Bradstreets	Paris Statistique Generale
1920	272.8	297.4	217.3	509.7
1921	210.8	190.1	131.3	345.0
1922	206.0	167.3	140.0	324.6
1923	209.5	170.2	154.8	420.2
1924	217.3	174.7	148.6	498.8
1925	212.2	169.1	161.1	561.3
1926	188.2	157.0	150.4	712.6
1927	178.6	151.0	147.6	630.3
1928	179.8	148.2	153.4	633.7

Note Index numbers of prices in London after 1924 are calculated according to the revised method of the Economist.

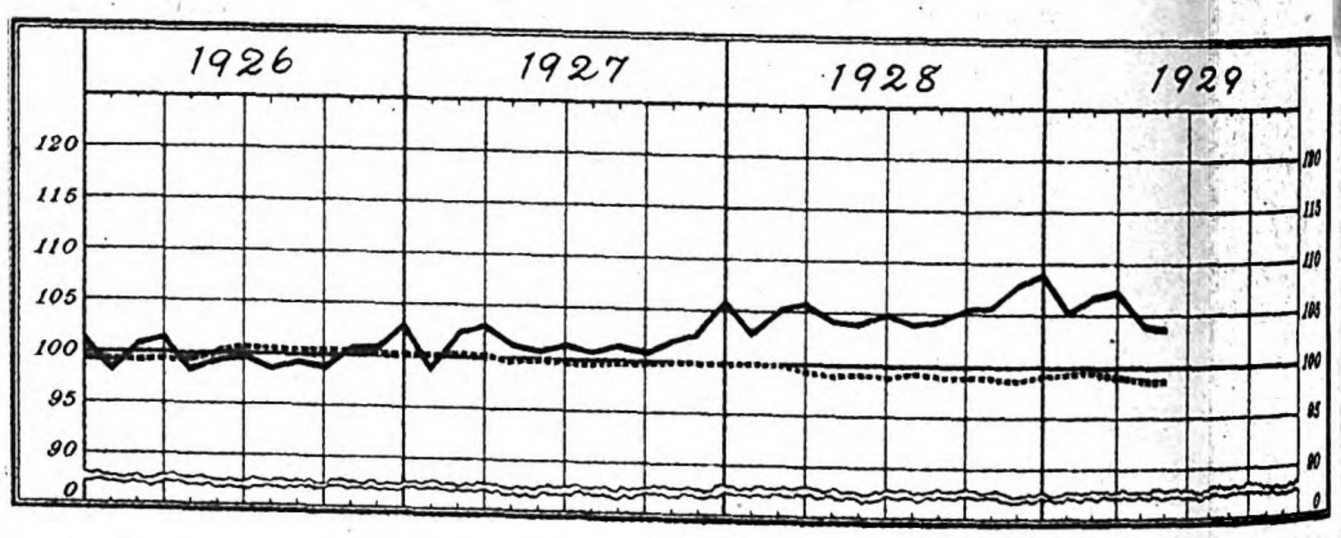
WAGES

Taking wages in Japan (silk-reeling excluded) for 1926 as 100, the average of the index numbers for 1928 indicates a decline in wage rates at 90.8, and an increase in earnings at 105.4. The average index numbers of male labour was 99.1 in wage rates, and 103.3 in earnings, while in female labour the corresponding figures were 98.3 and 99.8 respectively. Taking the wage rates and earnings of male and female labour together, the average for 1928 was 98.1, a fall of 1.9 per cent. as compared with that for 1926, and 2.4 per cent. below the average for the preceding year.

Index Numbers of Wages

	General Index		Male		Female	
	Wage Rates	Earnings	Wage Rates	Earnings	Wage Rates	Earnings
1926	100	100	100	100	100	100
1927	99.9	102.1	100.1	101.2	99.1	99.4
1928	90.8	105.4	99.1	103.3	98.3	99.8
Jan.	99.8	102.5	99.8	100.2	99.2	100.2
Feb.	99.7	105.0	99.8	103.3	99.0	100.2
Mar.	99.5	106.1	99.5	104.2	98.8	99.7
Apr.	99.0	104.6	99.0	103.1	98.4	100.2
May	98.9	104.2	98.9	102.4	98.2	99.4
June	98.9	106.1	98.9	103.4	98.1	99.5
July	99.0	104.2	99.1	102.2	98.2	98.6
Aug.	98.9	104.4	98.9	101.8	98.1	99.2
Sept.	98.9	105.3	99.0	102.7	97.9	99.9
Oct.	98.7	106.1	98.8	103.4	97.7	100.0
Nov.	98.7	107.3	98.7	105.1	97.6	100.7
Dec.	98.8	109.5	98.9	108.0	98.0	100.6

As may be seen from the above table, the wages in 1923 were lower than in either of the preceding two years, and moreover the condition of employment in that year was not at all more encouraging than in the preceding two years, as may be seen from the following table:



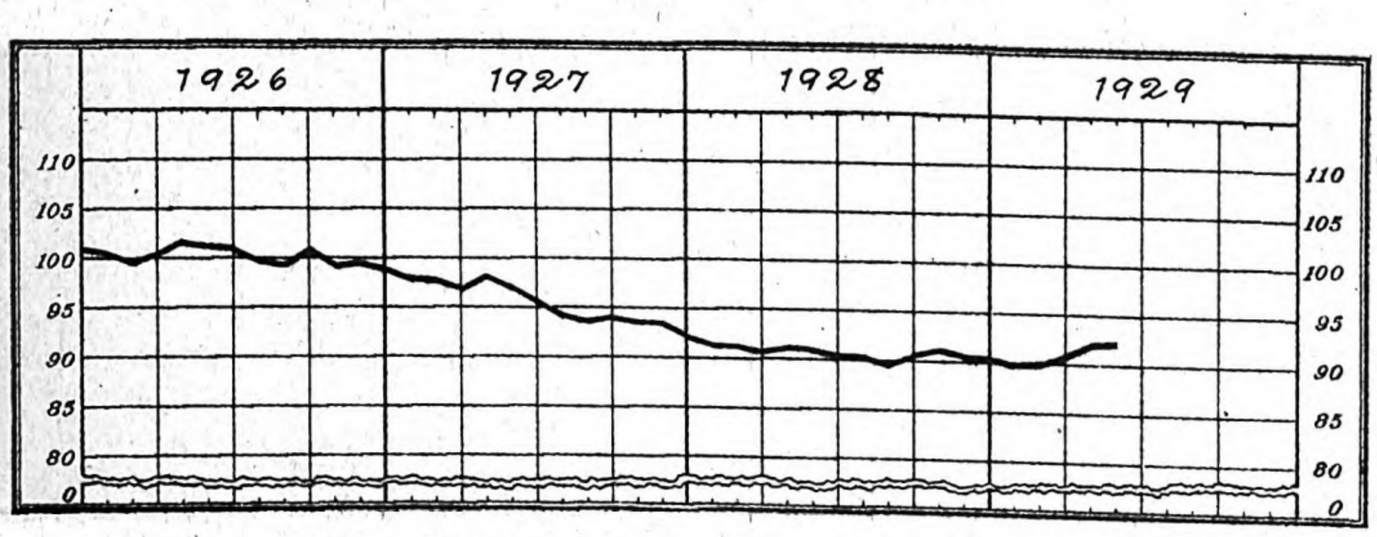
Wage Index ---- Rates of Wages (daily average)
—— Actual Earnings (do.)
Monthly Average for 1926=100

Index Numbers of Employment

	General Index	Male	Female
1926....	100.0	100.0	100.0
1927....	94.8	97.7	92.0
1928....	90.3	97.2	83.8

As is evidenced by these index numbers the plight of our labouring classes is now growing more serious. The prices of commodities are declining, as we have already seen, but this helps little in relieving the difficulties of our labourers. The wage rates are declining year after year, and the difficulties of their lives are increasing in proportion. There is a retrocession in labour conditions in this country.

On the other hand the population of the country is growing larger year by year, and the poor rate of employment will mean the growth of unemployment, or of a deplorable pile of industrial reserve.



Employment Index (Monthly Average for 1926–100)

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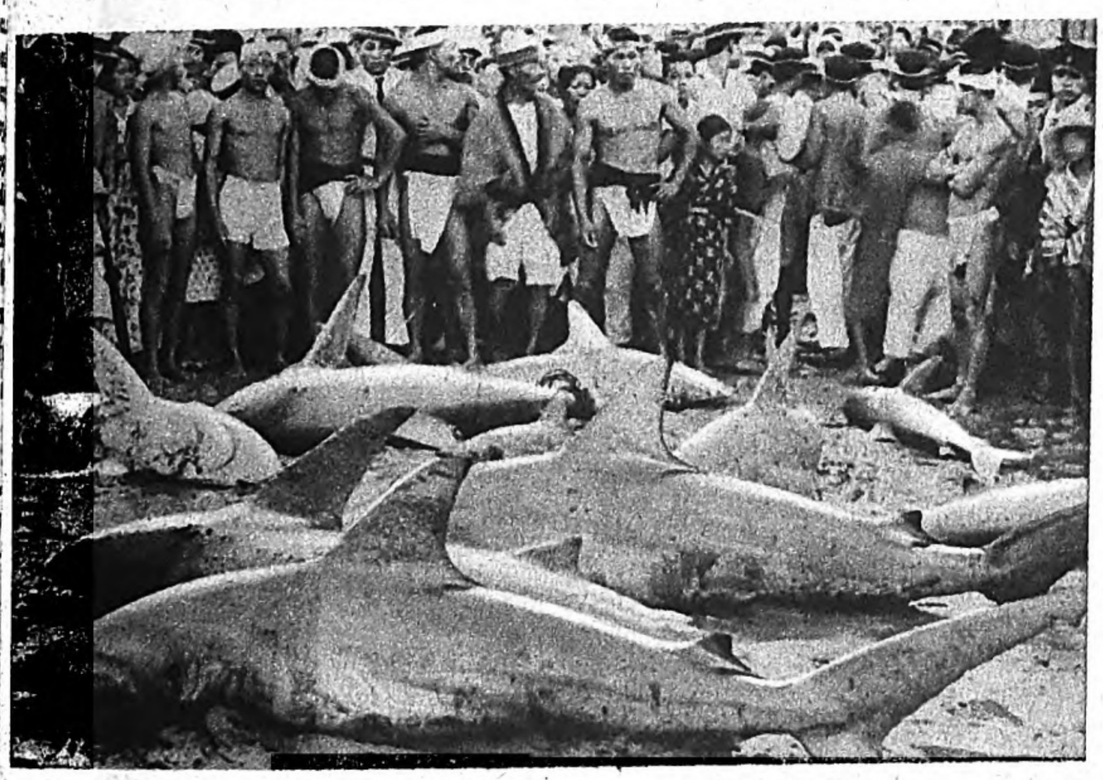
The Fishing Industry in Japan

FISHERIES constitute one of the important industries of Japan, an industry on which many of her people have subsisted from time immemorial. Fishing is done in every nook of the country, wherever there is a river or lake or the coast of a sea. The following discussion is chiefly about Japan proper, the fisheries of Saghalien, Formosa and Korea being left out.

SEA FISHING

In olden days sea fishing was carried along the coasts with small junks, drag seines and trap nets. At the end of the 19th century, however, sailing-boats of western type were introduced for fur-seal hunting, and this invited a gradual change in the type of fishing boats in Japan. With the appearance of an oil-engine boat of about twenty tons in 1905, deep-sea fisheries were developed for the first time, and they have made headlong progress ever since. However, coastal fisheries, having a long history behind them and extensive fishing grounds, still maintain the predominance so far as output is concerned.

1. COASTAL FISHERIES.—About 330, junks and 9,500 oil-engine boats small type are being used, and the fishing implements are drag seines and trap nets. Recently oil-engine boats have gained ground in the coastal fisheries, too, and the fishing junks that played such an important rôle in the past tend to decrease in number.



A Catch of Sharks in Amakusa District, Kumamoto Prefecture

2. FISHING WITH OIL-ENGINE BOATS. In 1905 an oil-engine boat was introduced into the fishing industry in Japan, and the use of such boats has steadily increased ever since. In 1927 the number in use was 20,706, of which those below 5 tons numbered 9,559, those between 5 and 10 tons 4,327, those between 10 and 20 tons 5,836, those between 20 and 50 tons 897 and those above 50 tons 88. The boats below five tons are chiefly engaged in coastal fishing and those above five tons in deep-sea fishing. The number of boats above five tons actually in service in 1927 was 6,960, with a total gross tonnage of 126,187 tons and crews numbering 100,297 men. The methods of fishing in oil-engine boats are angling and netting, the fish caught being bonitoes, sardines, mackerel pikes, sea breams, tunnies, mackerels, flatfish and so forth.

3. DEEP SEA FISHING WITH SAILING BOATS.—Sailing boats are used for fishing with sardine nets and cod ropes, and for coral fishing. Their number in 1927 were 769, with a gross tonnage of 4,889 and crews numbering 5,972 men.

4. FISHING WITH TRAWLERS.—In the fishing with trawlers, ships between 200 and 300 tons, equipped with steam or diesel engines, are used as is in the North Sea. At present a Government license is necessary in this enterprise in Japan, and the number of the ships is limited to seventy. The chief ports where trawlers gather and establish their headquarters are Shimonoseki, Fukuoka and Nagasaki in the southern part of Japan. In some fishing grounds near the coasts, fishing by trawlers is forbidden for fear that they may ruin them.

5. WHALE FISHING.—Whale fishing in Japan requires a Government license, and the number of ships is limited to thirty. The fishing is done with steamers mostly according to the Norway system and the whales caught are brought to shore for disposal. Recently a new method is being adopted in which the whales are disposed of on the steamers as is the whaling depots in Norway.

6. CRAB FISHING.—Crab fishing in Japan was started in 1920 and the steamers licensed by the government number twenty-four. The crabs are canned, and some of the superior kinds are exported abroad.

7. SALMON FISHING WITH CANNING EQUIPMENT ON THE STEAMERS.—This is the new method in salmon fishing, and the salmon caught are canned or prepared in other ways on the steamers. Export and home consumption are both very promising. The number of the steamers licensed by the government is twelve at present.

FISHING ON FRESH WATERS

In Japan the people eat much fish, and the fishing on fresh waters is very

A Catch of Sharks in Amakusa District, Kumamoto Prefecture

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FISH CULTURE

The development of fishery products is given much attention in Japan with a view to enriching the resources of the fisheries and making abundant the supply of food and provisions. The government, therefore, is interesting itself in the incubation of salmon and trouts and in the development of shallow water fish, having already imported from America the spawn of American salmon, crawfish, shells and shads. Private enterprises are doing work of similar kinds. Especially in the culture of sea weeds, remarkable progress has been made. In fresh water the culture of carps, eels and snapping turtles is gradually developing.

OUTPUT OF THE FISHING INDUSTRY FOR 1927

	kan	yen
Coastal & Fresh Water Fisheries	792,474,645	229,138,318
Deep Sea Fisheries	136,861,661	89,265,459
Culture Fisheries	23,342,042	22,920,680
Total	952,678,348	341,324,457

DIFFERENT USES OF FISHING PRODUCE

	kan
Materials for provisions	272,087,194
Fresh fish consumption	198,384,607
Fertilizer and fish oil	275,920,464
Bait for fishing	5,131,264
Others	1,117,000

Pulling in the Seine

PRODUCTS OF FISHERIES

Provisions	kan	yen
Dried bonitoes	4,712,229	25,385,658
Round herrings	31,192,857	30,802,132
Dry salted fish	9,482,069	9,233,957
Dry boiled fish	12,460,525	22,927,759
Smoked fish	337,478	590,262
Salted fish	12,575,798	9,974,550
Isinglas	348,943	3,813,870
Canned goods	6,027,170	9,539,614
Others	18,191,763	50,154,902
Total	95,328,832	162,422,904

Non-provisions

(,000 omitted)

	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928
Fertilizer			65,383,681	29,448,175	
Fish oil			8,175,206	3,697,857	
Glue			217,811	868,633	
Total			73,788,698	34,014,665	
Grand Total			169,107,530	196,437,569	

Canned crabs

1924	1925	1926	1927	1928
127,125 cases	217,717	278,381	381,470	508,912
4,885,565 yen	10,059,224	12,517,343	14,661,390	18,573,579

Canned salmon

550,869 cases	477,266	685,454	841,809	1,038,555
9,329,753 yen	14,696,724	20,480,474	23,747,441	27,445,347

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF FISHERY PRODUCTS

The fishery products are largely consumed in the home market, yet their exportation is none the less important, and in 1928 the export amounted to ¥75,000,000. To China and the South Sea Islands a large amount of sea-weeds, dried fish and salted fish is exported, and the canned crab and salmon goes increasingly to the United States and England as shown in the following table:

Recently the exportation of isinglass and fish oil to Europe and the United States has been started. Therefore the government, seeing a bright future for the business if the quality was maintained, gave a subsidy and forced the exporters' association to carefully examine all goods to be exported. The exportation of fresh fish was until recently limited to China and Hawaii, but in 1928 orders for albacores were placed by the importers of California, who wanted them for canning, and their exportation to this market is looked upon with much expectation.

As regards importation, the most important imports are salted salmon and trout from Canada, followed by shell fish from the Dutch Indies and China, and oiled sardines and canned goods from Norway and France. The total value of the importation for 1928 amounted to ¥6,300,000.

The Gas Industry

ACCORDING to the returns of the Department of Commerce and Industry, the gas industry of Japan stood as in Table A at the end of 1928.

During the twelve months of 1928 the Japanese gas companies supplied gas to 1,079,000 households throughout the country, a daily supply being 1,585,000 cubic meters. Their daily capacity was 2,130,000 cubic meters.

Some of the principal gas manufacturers and suppliers, with the capital, dividend, number of consumers and amount of supply of each, are given in Table B.

The Osaka Gas Co. supplied 15,000,000 cubic feet in 1927, or 3,000,000 cubic feet over the estimates for the year. In the following year, too, there was a conspicuous increase from the first months These facts resulted in a change in the expansion scheme the company had worked out. Last November they constructed two new plants, the Iwasaki and the Shamitsu, at a cost of ¥6,000,000 and increased their capacity by 7,000,000 cubic feet. This increase in capacity consists of 3,000,000 cubic feet for the Iwasaki mill and 4,000,000 cubic feet for the Shamitsu mill.

The Tokyo Gas Co. formed plans a few years ago to get 80,000 new consumers in 1928 and 120,000 in 1929, which plans, however, were later changed to 100,000 for 1928 and 140,000 for 1929, with a total expenditure of ¥50,071,962. Such an expenditure was necessary to meet the demands of an ever growing population in Tokyo. Last year there was a gain of 112,480 gas consuming households over the preceding year.

TABLE A

	Number	Nominal Capital	Paid-up Capital
Companies specialising in gas	62	¥207,127,000	¥137,091,000
Companies producing gas as a side-business	10	177,540,000	135,128,000
Municipal enterprises	5	—	—
Companies not yet opened for business	12	5,680,000	—
Total	89	390,347,000	272,219,000

N.B.—The figures for the capital of the companies producing gas as a side-business do not include investments in the other businesses they are principally engaged in.

TABLE B

	Capital	Dividend	Consumers	Supply of Gas
Tokyo	¥1,000,000,000	9%	376,529	788,769 cubic meters
Osaka	34,000,000	12	210,128	243,082
Kyoto	8,000,000	14	63,544	78,926
Kobe	10,000,000	12	95,901	104,603
Nagoya	24,000,000	12	70,069	90,763
Yokohama	—	—	26,033	26,469

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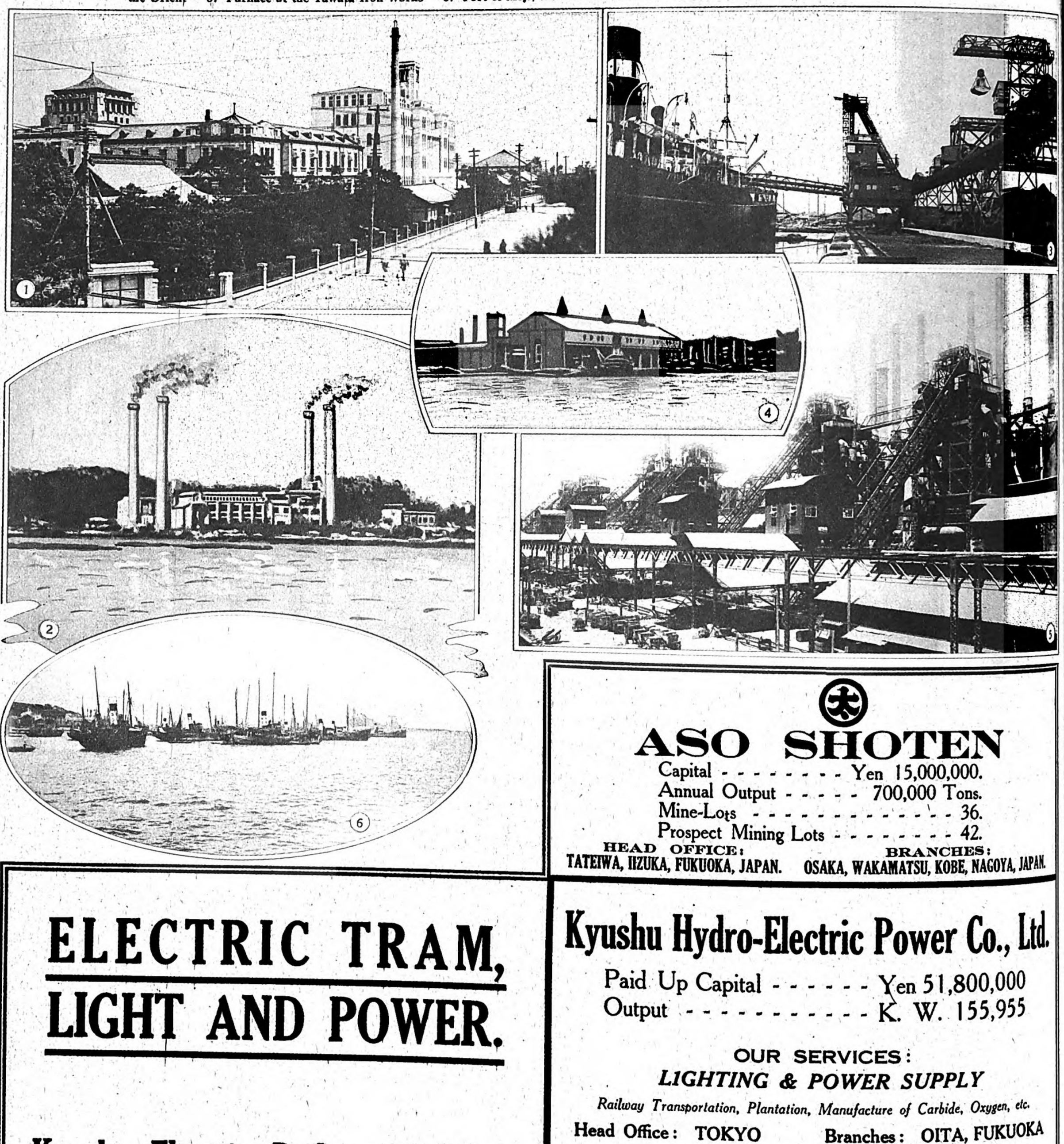
NORTHERN KYUSHU AND ITS ENTERPRISES

From olden times Northern Kyushu has been the main stage for communication and trade with China and Korea. In the Nara and Heian periods (710-1184), Karatsu and Hakata were the harbours for outgoing vessels. Imperial messengers to China started from these harbours. From the latter half of the civil war period to the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate (1333-1867), the stage was shifted to Hirado and later, to Nagasaki. In the era of Meiji it was again shifted to Kammon. Passengers go to Fusan from Shimonoseki, while goods are sent from Moji. Up to that time steamboats plied every other day between Hakata and Fusan.

The Yawata Iron Works and most of the other factories in the five cities in Northern Kyushu import materials from Korea, Manchuria, China and the South Seas and export their products to these places. Northern Kyushu is nearer to China and the South Seas than Osaka and Nagoya are, and moreover, coal is very plentiful in Chikuzen and its neighborhood. This accounts for the fact that heavy industry is highly developed there, and the relations with the continent are ever being expanded. Fukuoka is well known for its port of Hakata. In the city are the Prefectural Offices and other government institutions. The Kyushu Imperial University is also in Fukuoka. The so-called Five Cities, Moji, Kokura, Tobata, Wakamatsu, and Yawata, constitute the industrial zone of Northern Kyushu. Kurume is a centre of communications in the plain of Chikugo. Omuda is well known through the Miike Coal Mine. Iizuka, Gotoji, and Naokata are centers of communication in the coal district

Photos: 1. Fukuoka Prefectural Office, which controls the industrial zone in Western Japan 2. Najima Power House of the Toho Electric Company 3. Tobata Coal Stores centre of the Kaijima enterprise. Loading the Indo-Maru (7910 tons), belonging to the Utsubo Steamship Co. 4. Tobata Cold Storage Plant, the biggest in the Orient 5. Furnace at the Yawata Iron Works 6. Port of Moji, the mouth of Northern Kyushu



ELECTRIC TRAM, LIGHT AND POWER.

Kyushu Electric Railway Co., Ltd.

KOKURA, JAPAN.

ASO SHOTEN

Capital - - - - - - - - Yen 15,000,000.
Annual Output - - - - - 700,000 Tons.
Mine-Lots - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 36.
Prospect Mining Lots - - - - - - - - 42.

HEAD OFFICE: TATEIWA, IIZUKA, FUKUOKA, JAPAN.
BRANCHES: OSAKA, WAKAMATSU, KOBE, NAGOYA, JAPAN.

Kyushu Hydro-Electric Power Co., Ltd.

Paid Up Capital - - - - - - Yen 51,800,000
Output - - - - - - - - - - - K. W. 155,955

OUR SERVICES:
LIGHTING & POWER SUPPLY
Railway Transportation, Plantation, Manufacture of Carbide, Oxygen, etc.

Head Office: TOKYO Branches: OITA, FUKUOKA

SUBSIDIARY COMPANIES:
THE KYUSHU ELECTRIC TRANSMISSION CO., LTD.
THE TSUETATE-RIVER HYDRO-ELECTRIC POWER CO., LTD.
THE CHIKUGO ELECTRIC COMPANY, LIMITED.
THE KYUSHU ELECTROCHEMICAL MFG. CO., LTD.

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The Ethics of Industry Brought Home to the People in Osaka

GLASS—THERMOS BOTTLES—RUBBER—CHEMICAL DRUGS

The Tamai Glass Manufactory at Shigita-Machi, Osaka, has perfected a five-coloured glass, which is a great exploit in the industrial circles of the world, of which it may well be proud. The head of the manufactory is Mr. Shigetaro Kijo, who is known as a great advocate of co-operation between capital and labour. The workers employed by him are so well satisfied with his magnanimous treatment that they have erected a monument to show their gratitude.

Mr. Seizaburo Shimizu, head of the Shimizu Tetsugo Store at Togano-cho, Osaka, is known as a manufacturer of table ware, kerosene lamp wick-holders, glass ware, etc. He is also known as a writer. He once visited the South Sea Islands and collected precious data on conditions there.

The Katsu Glass Cutting Factory and Ishida Glass Cutting Factory are the representative glass cutters of Japan. The former is at Nozato-Machi, Osaka, and the latter at No. 3 Higashi-dori, Honjo, Osaka.

The Miyasuzugo Glass Factory at Tsuruno-Machi, Osaka, is under the management of Mr. Tsuneshichi Miyazaki and Mr. Masao Suzuki, business manager. The factory is engaged in the manufacture of kerosene lamps, whose durability and elegance are known throughout the country.

The Tsuchide Eikichi Company and the Asahi Glass Factory are the greatest exporters of glass in Japan.

Japanese vacuum bottles are known for their quality. The principal manufacturers are the Yamanaka Tatsu Company (Minami Horie-Dori, Osaka), the Yagi Vacuum Ware Manufactory (Miyazumachi), the Niwa Company (Kita-dori Itachibori, Osaka). The Yamanaka Tatsu Company hold a unique position as exporters of vacuum bottles. Mr. Teijiro Yagi of the Yagi Company was the first manufacturer of the bottles in Japan. Now Mr. Koichiro Yagi is the head of the company.

In Japan there are many rubber manufacturers. The Kyuho Rubber Manufactory (Minami Nichome, Urae, Osaka) has a name for producing light and high class rubber shoes and boots. Mr. Hikoichi Yamada is the head of the Manufactory. The Mutsuda Rubber Company, Ltd., has long enjoyed a reputation for the production of the best rubber for use with medical instruments and in engineering. Mr. Takejiro Mutsuda is the President, and Mr. Masaji Fujita, the managing director of the company.

JAPANESE VACUUM BOTTLES

Tatsunosuke Yamanaka

President of the Japan Vacuum Bottle Manufacturers' Association.

Those who want economy should use the Japanese vacuum bottles, which save both fuel and labour. Japanese vacuum bottles maintain either heat or cold. They are very cheap in price and durable. On this account, they are indispensable in the home. Japanese vacuum bottles have a great reputation in the world market. In this era of economy and retrenchment, you will do well to use these bottles daily in your home.

PHOTOS: 1. Mr. Katsu, Master of the Katsu Glass Cutting Factory. 2. Mr. Yagi, Master of the Yagi Vacuum Ware Manufactory. 3. Mr. Takejiro Matsuda. 4. Mr. Motozo Yamaguchi, Master of the Yamaguchi Red Ochre Manufactory. 5. Mr. Seizaburo Shimizu. 6. Mr. Sakujiro Kamei, Master of the Asahi Glass Factory. 7. Mr. Tsuneshichi Miyazaki. 8. Mr. Masao Suzuki. 9. Mr. Norikuni Oyama. 10. Mr. Hikoichi Yamada.

The Oyama Rubber Manufactory at Oimazato, Osaka, is managed by Mr. Norikuni Oyama. He is a prohibitionist and succeeds in keeping his manufactory dry.

The company's abstinence is known as widely as its rubber products. The Yamaguchi Red Ochre Manufactory (Rokubancho Kozu, Osaka) has a high reputation for the manufacture of red ochre. The manufactory was established two hundred years ago. Its ochre is widely used for paints, dyeing, water-proof cloth, matches, etc. The products of the company are of superior quality.

THE SAKAI REFINERY COMPANY

The Sakai Refinery Company is under the management of Mr. Ginjiro Tanaka, who because of his skill, business ability and character, is one of the best known personages in the industrial circles of Japan. The Company has one factory in the city of Sakai and another at Marugame, Shikoku. These factories manufacture flowers of zinc, zinc powder, lithophone, zinc chloride, precipitated barium of sulphuric acid, barium of carbonic acid, barium chrolide, etc. It is generally recognised that the flowers of zinc and lithophone manufactured by the company are superior in quality. Mr. Michitsugu Ito, manager of the comapny, is widely known for his business ability. The company has agents at Hashizume, Korai-bashi, Osaka, and at Yodo-bashi, Tokyo.

OKAGAKI ALUMINUM FOUNDRY

Lasts for Fashionable Boots of Special Design
Lasts for Boots, Overshoes and Rubber Shoes Cast Wares of Light Metal Alloy

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TRADE MARK
"Keizai-tan"
Economical Coal
Product of the patent briquet machine.
YAMAZAKI BRIQUET FACTORY

VACUUM BOTTLE
TRADE MARK
PHOENIX
For Hot or Cold Drinks
Liquids Hot for 24 hours and Cold 72 hours
Manufactured by
NIWA VACUUM BOTTLES CO.
6-chome Kita-dori, Itachibori, Nishi-ku, Osaka.
Phones: Sakuragawa 377 & 4217
熱水瓶自造批發
合名會社 二和商店
大阪市西區立賣堀北通六丁目

TRADE MARK
TSUCHIDE GLASS FACTORY
MANUFACTURERS & EXPORTERS
546, SHIGINOCHO, OSAKA, JAPAN.
Codes Used:
SCHOFIELD ECLECTIC PHRASE CODE
BENTLEY'S COMPLETE PHRASE CODE
A. B. C. 6th EDITION
SPECIAL PRIVATE CIPHER CODE
Cable Address:
"FLOURISCO" OSAKA
TEL. NOS. 2887, 5811 (HIGASHI)
Branch:
79, NANAKOMACHI, NAGOYA.

Cable Address: "FUKIKOMI OSAKA"
Code Used: BENTLEY'S & PRIVATE.
REGISTERED TRADE MARK
Factory Make: ALL KINDS OF TABLE WARES
ASAHI GLASS FACTORY
Proprietor: S. KAMEI.
MANUFACTURERS OF ALL KINDS OF GLASS WARES.
EXPORTERS FOR GENERAL MERCHANDISE.
1-chome Yoriki-machi, OSAKA, JAPAN.
Telephone: 350661 (HORIKAWA 661)

TRADE MARK
TIGER BRAND
PERFECT FELT HATS

Manufacturers and Exporters of Hats.
KONO SEIBO & CO., LTD.
(Kono Hat Manufacturing Company, Limited.)
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The Electric Industry

GENERATING CAPACITY

AT the end of 1927 Japan had a generating capacity of 5,384,290 k.w., comprising 3,647,131 k.w. already installed and 1,917,150 k.w. yet to be installed. Table A gives an analysis of the generating capacity divided according to the kinds of motive power used.

As compared with the corresponding figures at the end of the preceding year, Table A represents an increase of 482,840 k.w. for water power, 38,081 k.w. for steam and 11,706 k.w. for gas, or a total of 532,627 k.w.

POWER PLANTS

The power plants connected with the general supply of power and the electric railway industry numbered 1,626 at the end of 1927, as classified according to capacity and motive power in the following table:

		Water Power	Steam Power	Gas Power	Total
Below 500 k.w.	Installed ..	655	35	97	787
	Uninstalled	53	2	16	71
	Total	708	37	113	858
500 k.w. & Over	Installed ..	405	62	2	469
	Uninstalled	113	6	1	120
	Total	518	68	3	589
5,000 k.w. & Over ..	Installed ..	88	42	—	130
	Uninstalled	40	9	—	49
	Total	128	51	—	179
Total ..	Installed ..	1,148	139	99	1,380
	Uninstalled	206	17	17	240
	Total	1,354	156	116	1,626

The number of power plants, as shown above, means an increase of 21 for water power and 6 for steam, a decrease of 4 for gas, and an increase of 11 in the total as against the corresponding figures for the preceding year.

POWER GENERATED

For the twelve months of 1927, the aggregate amount of power generated in this country stood at 9,757,059,050 k.w.h. This total consisted of 8,588,072,381 k.w.h. or 88% generated by water power, 1,148,713,993 k.w.h. or 11.8% by steam power and 20,272,676 k.w.h. or 0.2% by gas power.

CONSUMPTION OF POWER

Of all the electric motors in use in this country at the end of 1927, 281,445 were supplied with power by general power suppliers to the extent of 1,071,910 h.p. Thus the average horse-power per motor stood at 3.8. For the motors in private and government use at the end of the same year, the corresponding figures were 58,296 for number, 1,332,729 for horse-power, and 23 h.p. for average per motor. These motors may be tabulated as follows according to the different industries in which they are employed:

	Motors	Horse-Power	Increase in Horse-Power over Preceding Year
Dyeing & Weaving ..	54,600	339,000	16,000
Machine Industry.....	44,000	393,500	23,900
Chemical Industry.....	26,600	383,900	18,300
Food & Drink Manufacture	115,700	311,100	16,700
Mining & Refining	11,500	540,400	16,200
Others	87,300	436,700	20,700
Total	339,700	2,404,600	111,900

Turning to the consumption for electric lighting, there were at the end of 1927, 10,547,235 households with electric light instalments. The lamps used by these households numbered 32,322,991, with a total candle-power of 605,609,846. This signifies 3.1 lamps and 57.4 candle-power per household. The following figures show the lamps of different candle-powers used:

	Number of Lamps	Percentage	Percentage for Preceding Year
Below 10 C.P.	3,694,976	11%	12%
10 C.P.	9,174,944	29	30
16 C.P.	8,982,829	28	29
20 C.P. & Over	10,470,242	32	29
Total	32,322,991	100	100

It is computed that at the end of 1927 every 100 persons in Japan had in use 53 lamps with a candle-power of 900, or an increase of 3.2 lamps and 83 candle-power over the preceding year.

At the end of 1927 the number of electric cars in Japan was 10,573, of which those furnished with motors were 7,469, with a total horse-power of 825,909, or an increase of 120,951 horse-power over the preceding year.

ELECTRIC ENTERPRISES

At the end of 1927 the electric enterprises in this country were as follows:

	Operating	Not Yet Operating	Total	Comparison with Past Year
Power Suppliers..	572	25	597	-30
Railways	117	42	159	13
Power Suppliers & Railways	72	—	7	1
Total	761	67	828	-16
For Private & Government Use	5,223	357	5,580	569
Grand Total....	5,984	424	6,408	553

At the end of 1927 the total capital invested in the power supplying and railway enterprises was ¥3,796,670,354, of which ¥272,471,000 or 7.2% represents those not yet opened for business. The remainder, or the capital invested in those already doing business, is shown in Table B.

From this table it is seen that the paid-up capital was 75.8 per cent. of the nominal capital, showing a decrease of 1.2 below the preceding year. Of the paid-up capital, the loans and debentures were 56.3%, or an increase of 6.3% over the preceding year, and the reserves 5.6%, or an increase of 0.1%.

During the year 1927 the electric enterprises had receipts of ¥763,561,770 and disbursements of ¥484,020,868, the balance of ¥279,540,902 representing the profits. These figures show a gain of ¥795,270 in receipts, ¥585,908 in disbursements and ¥209,362 in profits as compared with the corresponding figures for the preceding year. The percentage of the profits to the paid-up capital was 10.5% for the power suppliers, 7.4% for the railways, and 10.9% for the power suppliers and railways; this was 10.5% on the average, or a loss of 1% from the preceding year. For the same year the reserves stood at ¥23,505,771, or 8.4% of the profits. Below are given details of receipts, with amounts and percentages:

Items	Amounts	Percentage	Percentage for Preceding Year
Light	¥244,678,000	32%	29%
Power	253,312,000	33.1	30.5
Railways ..	158,330,000	20.8	19.3
Power & Railways Combined	21,597,000	2.8	5.2
Others.....	85,642,000	11.3	16.0
Total	763,561,000	100.0	100.0

Of 612 joint-stock companies engaged in electric enterprises, 16 paid a dividend of 15% or over for the latter half of 1927, 69 of 12% or over, 10 of 10% or over, 70 of 8% or over, 15 of 5% or over, 41 of less than 5%, 15 no dividend at all, and 40 had deficits. The remaining 121 concerns generate electricity as a side business. In other words, 30% of all the companies paid 10% or over, 34% paid 5% or over and 7% paid below 5%.

PRICES AND PROFITS

Charges for electric light and power in recent years have been as follows:

Electric Power

	One Horse-Power per Month Night	Day	Per Kilowatt Hour Night	Day
In 1924	¥9.00	¥17.93	6.8 sen	7.3 sen
,, 1925	9.12	18.34	7.0	7.5
,, 1926	8.76	17.70	7.1	7.1
,, 1927	8.68	17.16	6.6	7.1

Electric Light

	Per Month 5 C.P.	10 C.P.	16 C.P.	Per Kilowatt Hour
In 1924	58.2 sen	75.6 sen	91.1 sen	21.2 sen
,, 1925	59.5	75.2	90.3	20.7
,, 1926	59.3	74.4	89.4	20.0
,, 1927	58.9	74.3	88.6	20.0

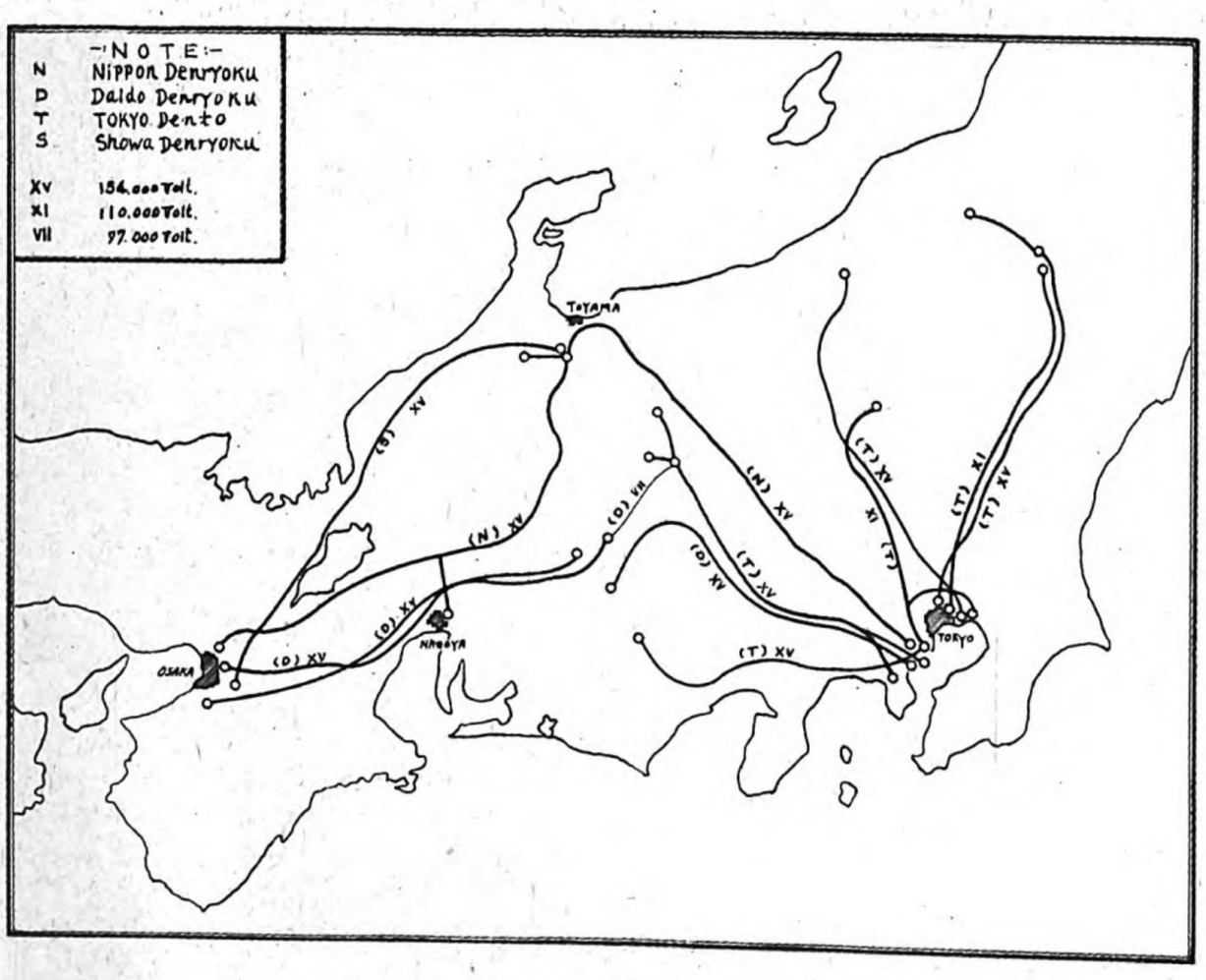
As seen above, price cutting has been the tendency recently.

Now let us see what profits are made in this industry. The percentage of profits to immovable property for the five biggest electric companies is shown in Table C.

We learn from the figures in Table C that the Japanese electric industry has not yet emerged from a period of competition among individual interests and that some years must pass before the industry attains stability.

Table D shows the percentage of depreciation funds to immovable property.

The percentage of profits to paid-up capital and of dividends to profits, is shown in Table E.



Map Showing the Principal Electric Power Lines in Japan

Table A

		Water Power	Steam Power	Gas Power	Total
For Factories & Railways	Installed	1,791,918	866,692	9,199	2,687,809
	Uninstalled..	1,031,694	139,885	1,741	1,173,320
	Total	2,823,612	1,026,577	10,940	3,861,129
For Private & Government Use	Installed	319,169	427,881	32,272	779,322
	Uninstalled..	732,640	10,776	423	743,839
	Total	1,051,809	438,657	32,695	1,523,161
Total	Installed	2,111,087	1,314,573	41,471	3,467,131
	Uninstalled..	1,764,334	150,661	2,164	1,917,159
	Total	3,875,421	1,465,234	43,635	5,384,290

Table B

	Nominal Capital	Paid-up Capital	Fixed Capital	Loans & Debentures	Reserves
Power Suppliers	1,141,020	790,850	1,086,960	514,750	48,540
Railways	480,990	267,500	377,170	191,300	15,000
Power Suppliers & Railways	1,902,190	1,618,800	2,203,260	797,990	86,900
Total	3,524,200	2,677,150	3,667,390	1,506,040	150,480
Increase in Percentage over Past Year	10.5%	9.1%	15.4%	22.9%	12.6%

(In thousands of yen)

Table C

		Nippon	Tokyo	Daido	Toho	Ujigawa
1924	First Half	0.49%	1.12%	0.52%	1.33%	0.81%
	Second ,, ...	0.50	1.20	0.62	1.36	0.84
1925	First ,, ...	0.60	1.16	0.90	1.30	0.88
	Second ,, ...	0.75	0.93	1.05	1.26	0.92
1926	First ,, ...	0.72	0.85	1.07	1.25	0.76
	Second ,, ...	0.62	0.90	1.18	1.24	0.85
1927	First ,, ...	0.59	0.82	1.06	1.15	0.84
	Second ,, ...	0.65	0.83	1.12	1.12	0.83
1928	First ,, ...	0.70	0.73	1.03	1.15	0.82
	Second ,, ...	—	0.78	—	1.12	—

Table D

		Nippon	Tokyo	Daido	Toho	Ujigawa
1924	First Half	—%	0.458%	—%	0.532%	0.367%
	Second ,, ...	—	0.647	0.305	0.517	0.349
1925	First ,, ...	—	0.556	0.169	0.544	0.329
	Second ,, ...	—	0.435	0.148	0.516	0.319
1926	First ,, ...	—	0.350	0.100	0.517	0.307
	Second ,, ...	—	0.453	0.118	0.502	0.276
1927	First ,, ...	—	0.411	0.145	0.501	0.261
	Second ,, ...	0.673	0.523	0.126	0.504	0.254
1928	First ,, ...	0.237	0.469	0.214	0.506	0.279
	Second ,, ...	—	0.488	0.296	0.503	—

Table E

		Nippon Profits	Nippon Dividends	Tokyo Profits	Tokyo Dividends	Daido Profits	Daido Dividends	Toho Profits	Toho Dividends	Ujigawa Profits	Ujigawa Dividends
1924	First Half	7.1%	89%	12.1%	87%	8.9%	93%	14.2%	84%	13.4%	81%
	Second ,,	10.9	68	12.3	85	9.5	87	13.9	86	14.2	82
1925	First ,,	9.0	94	13.4	85	9.2	90	13.9	87	13.4	81
	Second ,,	10.7	89	13.4	86	10.2	87	13.9	86	14.6	82
1926	First ,,	10.4	91	13.2	87	12.3	85	14.2	85	13.6	80
	Second ,,	9.3	99	11.1	83	12.8	83	14.2	85	15.5	83
1927	First ,,	9.5	98	11.1	84	11.9	89	14.0	86	14.2	81
	Second ,,	10.2	90	11.3	73	12.3	85	13.0	77	14.4	82
1928	First ,,	10.5	89	10.2	73	11.5	90	12.1	83	14.7	79
	Second ,,	—	—	10.4	79	—	—	—	—	—	—

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Machinery Manufacturing

GENERAL SURVEY

THE machinery manufacturing industry of Japan, manufacturing electric supplies, motor cars, Diesel engines for ships, machinery for paper-milling and airplane engines, has developed rapidly since the outbreak of the World War, achieving remarkable success in technic. And the industry holds a prominent position as one of the growing new industries. Although, on account of the reactionary depression in business in general, the industry has been suffering from inevitable inactivity caused by the decrease in demand, it can still expect considerable demand from some quarters.

The capital invested in machinery manufacturing is as follows :

Year	Number of companies	Capital paid up (in millions of yen)	Percentage of paid-up capital against the total capital invested in industry
1912	38	5	0.3%
1922	126	101	1.3%
1925	198	234	1.4%

1 Manufacture of Electrical Supplies

Of the machinery manufacturing industries, that which has made the most remarkable progress is the manufacture of electrical supplies. Its output, as shown in the following table, is increasing gradually with the years :

Year	Generators, motors and transformers	Batteries & outfits for communication	Lamps	Insulated cords & wires	Total	Total output of all machinery manufacturing industries	Percentage of electrical supplies manufacture
				(in thousands of yen)			
1914	9.0	1.5	4.2	6.5	21.2	111.0	19%
1919	34.0	9.0	13.0	41.0	97.0	716.0	24
1923	14.0	7.0	16.0	56.0	93.0	392.0	31
1926	24.0	26.0	15.0	78.0	143.0	539.0	27

Centralization of Enterprises.—Of late all industrial enterprises are growing bigger and bigger and being centralized, and this is especially true of the electrical supplies manufacturing industry. It is noteworthy that such centralization is connected with capital from abroad.

Manufacture of Electric Wire.—The percentages of the consumption of copper in the manufacture of various commodities is as folloes :

	Copper wire	Copper & brass plate	Copper brass wire & tubes	Copper rods &	For army & government	For ship-building	Others
1921 ..	53%	20%	8%	9%	6%	4%	
1924 ..	69	17	4	4	6	2	

As may be seen from the above table, nearly seventy per cent. of the copper consumed goes into the manufacture of wire, and the percentage is on the increase. Meanwhile, how enterprises are centralized in the electric wire manufacturing industry may be seen from the fact that the output of insulated wire in 1926, which amounted to ¥97,000,000 in value ,was divided up as follows:

Furukawa and associated companies	¥37,000,000
Sumitomo and associated companies	38,000,000
Hidachi Seisakusho.....	4,000,000
Others	18,000,000

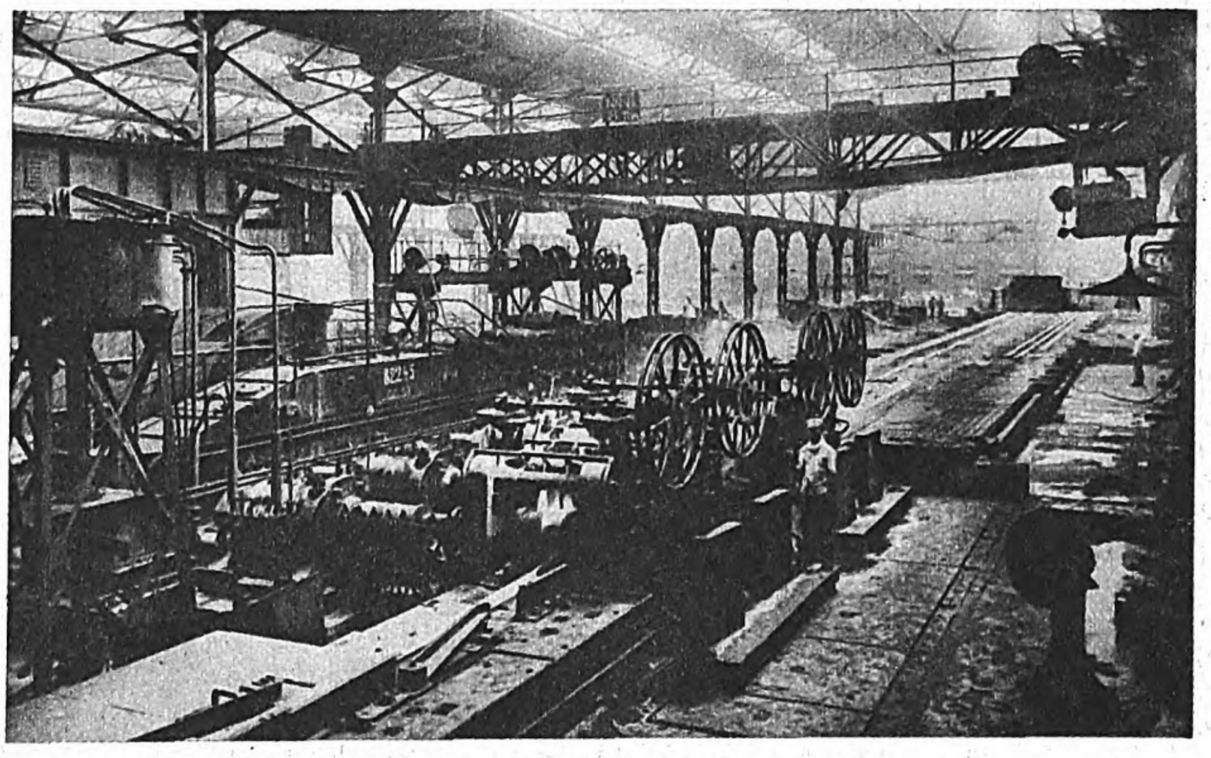
As the table shows, in the electric wire manufacturing industry, the financial capital of the Furukawa and the Sumitomo almost monopolizes the market.

Electric Lamps and Telegraphic Implements.—In the manufacture of electric lamps, the Tokyo Denki Kabushiki Kaisha (Tokyo Electric Co., Ltd.) has under its control, the Osaka Denkyu Kabushiki Kaisha, the Dai Nippon Denkyu Kabushiki Kaisha, the Daido Denki Kabushiki Kaisha and the Kyoto Denkyu Kabushiki Kaisha and having many selling companies, is getting into its hands the manufacture and selling of electric lamps in the markets of the Far East. The Tokyo Denki Kabushiki Kaisha has a subscribed capital of ¥21,000,000 (¥15,500,000 paid up), divided into 420,000 shares, of which 240,000 (¥9,000,000) are held abroad. In the manufacture of telegraphic and telephonic implements, the Nippon Denki Kabushiki Kaisha (capital subscribed : ¥20,000,000 ; capital paid up: ¥15,000,000, of which ¥12,000,000 is held abroad) holds a strong monopolistic position.

Heavy Electrical Machinery.—In this section of the electrical machinery industry, the Shibaura Seisakusho (with capital from Mitsui), the Mitsubishi Denki Kabushiki Kaisha (the Mitsubishi Electrical Engineering Co., Ltd.), the Fuji Denki Seizo Kabushiki Kaisha (the Fuji Electrical Engineering Co., Ltd., with capital from Furukawa) and the Hidachi Seisakusho (the Hidachi Works, with capital from Kuhara) have control. On the other hand, as there is competition among these big companies, the profit rate is lowered far below that in such enterprises as the manufacture of insulated wire, electric lamps, and telephonic and telegraphic implements, and some of these firms are suffering losses, as shown below :

Profit rate of the Tokyo Denki Kabushiki Kaisha, engaged in the manufacture of electric lamps

Year		Year	
1922	25.4%	1925	29.9%
1923	35.1	1926	34.4
1924	52.6	1927	34.7



Car Building Factory of the Kawasaki Dockyard Company

Year		Shibaura	Fuji	Hidachi
1922	(Upper half)	37.2%	—%	13.2%
1923	(,, ,,)	33.2	—	13.3
1924	(,, ,,)	0.6	loss	15.1
1925	(,, ,,)	17.6	0.03	18.3
1926	(,, ,,)	14.5	loss	14.9
1927	(,, ,,)	1.3	loss	13.8

As the Hidachi Seisakusho is engaged, too, in the manufacture of various articles other than electrical machinery, it can cover the losses incurred on the latter and gain the profit above mentioned, but in the manufacture of electrical machinery alone it is in no better position than the other firms.

The prices of electrical machinery are as follows :

	Average price for 1921	Average price for 1927	Rate of depreciation
Direct current generator			
100 k. w.	¥7,200	¥5,000	30%
1,000 k. w.	49,000	26,500	46
Alternate current generator			
1,000 k. w.	24,000	12,000	50
6,000 k. w.	105,000	47,000	55
13,000 k. w.	230,000	110,000	53
Induction motors			
100 h. p.	5,800	2,500	57
300 h. p.	9,700	6,600	32
500 h. p.	12,500	8,300	34

The depreciation averages 33% on direct current generators, 50% on alternate current generators and 43% on induction motors. On the other hand, in the sphere of cost of production, while the price of iron has fallen by 29%, the price of copper wire and copper plate, and wages, have risen rather than fallen. Hence, it is natural that the electrical machinery manufacturing industry is difficult. Moreover, competition among enterprisers and superfluous investment of capital add to the difficulties. Accordingly, co-operation among the companies has often been sought, and on electric fans, an agreement concerning the price has been reached among the Mitsubishi, the Shibaura, the Fuji and the Kawasaki. A similar agreement was made on transformers by the Shibaura, the Meidensha, the Okumura, the Kawakita, the Takaoka and the Hidachi. But these agreements did not succeed in abolishing competition, and the situation remains the same as before.

The reason these companies can not co-operate is that they are connected with international concerns in matters of technic and capital. For example, the Shibaura is connected with the General Electric Company, which holds 130,000 shares (¥6,500,000) out of 400,000 shares (¥20,000,000) in the company : the Mitsubishi, with the Westinghouse Electric Company, which holds 30,000 shares (¥1,500,000) out of 300,000 shares (¥15,000,000, of which ¥10,000,000 is paid up) in the company ; the Fuji Denki Seizo Kabushiki Kaisha, with Siemens Schuckert, which holds 60,000 shares (¥3,000,000) of the company's 200,000 shares (¥10,000,000, of which ¥8,000,000 is paid up).

As it is quite impossible for these international concerns to abandon competition among themselves, it is natural that the companies associated with them in our country cannot work in co-operation.

The competition, however, will be brought to an end in the near future as the competitors know it to be harmful to the stabilization of the market and the partial agreement will evolve into a general agreement on prices. Of late, the Tokyo Electrical Machinery Manufacturers' Association fixed the contract form in order to make uniform the conditions for transactions in electrical machinery. Whether this rule will be really observed remains doubtful. But such a conditional cartel will lead to the conclusion of a new treaty among big firms for the renunciation of hostility by abolishing all sorts of competition.

2. Railway Cars

The prominent manufacturers of railway cars who have continued in business since before the oubtreak of the world war are the Kisha Seizo Kabushiki Kaisha (the Railway Car Manufacturing Co., Ltd.), the Nippon Sharyo Kabushiki Kaisha (the Japan Railway Car Co., Ltd.) and the Kawasaki Dockyard, but since the war ended, the Hidachi Machinery Works, the Niigata Iron Works and the Fujinagata Dockyard have commenced the manufacture of railway cars. The annual output of locomotives and cars is as follows :

Year	Locomotives and tenders	Carriages and waggons
1914	4.5	3.3
1919	22.8	17.7
1923	16.3	14.6
1926	13.4	12.1

As may be seen from the above table, the output declined on account of the reactionary post-war depression in business, but the average of the annual output for a number of years after the war is several times as large as that a number of years before the war.

The chief customer for these manufactures is the Department for Railways. To protect the interests of manufacturers by eliminating competition in soliciting orders, a cartel concerning the allotment of orders was once formed by the Kisha-Seizo Kabushiki Kaisha, the Nippon Sharyo Kabushiki Kaisha and the Kawasaki Dockyard. But it was scrapped some time later because of a difference of opinion among these companies about the determination of the manufacturing capacity of each of them, and accordingly, the control of the market has been brought into the hands of the customer. At present each of these companies is allotted orders in accordance with its manufacturing capacity and technic. These manufacturers, however, are assuming a conciliatory attitude towards orders other than those of the Railway Department, so that the market still abounds in favourable prospects for these manufacturers. Consequently they are securing a pretty high rate of profit despite the general depression in business, and some of them, such as shipbuilders, are even covering losses incurred in their proper line of business with profits made in railway car manufacturing.

3. Motor Car Manufacturing Industry

The Japanese concerns which engage in the manufacture of motor cars are the Ishikawajima Dockyard, the Tokyo Gas and Electrical Engineering Co. and the Dutt Co. But of late, the General Motors Co. and the Ford Motor Car Co. of the United States of America have established, each with a capital of ¥8,000,000, the Japan General Motors Co. and the Japan Ford Motor Car Co., erecting factories in Osaka and Yokohama. Their powerful capital, taking advantage of the low price of labour in this country, enables them successfully to carry on mass production. The Japanese companies above referred to are nothing in any respect compared with these two big international concerns.

4. Miscellaneous Machinery Manufacturing Industries

The following companies may be mentioned in connection with the manufacture of various other kinds of machinery : machinery for mines, the Miike Engineering Works (with capital from Mitsui) ; machinery for spinning and weaving, the Toyoda Weaving Machinery Manufacturing Co. (with capital from Mitsui) ; machinery for paper milling, the Oshima Steel Works (with capital from Tanaka and Okawa). And of late, owing to the slump in the shipbuilding industry, the Kawasaki Dockyard, the Osaka Iron Works, the Yokohama Dock Co., the Uraga Dock Co., the Ishikawajima Dockyard and the Mitsubishi Dockyard have entered upon the manufacture of engines for ships, electric motors, pumps, airplanes, iron scaffolding, bridge frames and cranes, and are showing vigorous activities.

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Exchanges in Japan

December' 1928 there was a total of 34 exchanges, capitalized at 852,200 yen, of which 97,120,700 was paid up. They are of various ...s, some dealing exclusively in ...ks, some in rice, some in sugar, ...e in raw cotton, cotton yarns and ...on fabrics and others in rice, cotton ...s, and bean cakes, or in stocks and ... silk, or in rice, other grains and ...lizers, or in stocks and rice. ...lings in raw silk are made at ... exchanges at Kobe and Yoko... only. Most of those exchanges ... joint stock companies, and only ...w, of recent establishment, are on ... membership system. Thus the ...oya Cotton Yarn and Cotton Cloth ...hange, the Otaru Exchange (dealing ...ce, grains and fertilizers), the Osaka ...ar Exchange, the Tokyo Sugar ...hange, and the Kobe Bean Cake ...hange, which are of recent estab...nent, are all on the membership ...em, for Government licenses are ...r granted for exchanges now ...ss they are on the membership ...em. In joint stock company ex...ges, the deposit of security is ...ired for transactions, and any loss ...lting from breach of contracts is ...emable by the exchange. In mem...hip system exchanges, the transac... are secured by the joint responsi...les of the members.

...here were 1,209 licensed brokers ...nging to exchanges at the end of ... Of this number 1,089 belong ...oint stock company exchanges, and ... to exchanges on the membership ...em. The licensed brokers are ...ved to canvass for customers in ... own cities, and the establishment ...ranches is prohibited. Those who ... to transact business in an exchange ...ide their own place, must, there... send their orders to a licensed ...er by mail, telephone or telegraph. ...aw silk, raw cotton, cotton yarns, ...r and bean cakes being articles ...nternational commerce, the ex...ges dealing in these commodities ...t be ruled by conditions abroad. ...aw silk exchanges, for instance, the ...s for delivery are conditioned and ...ed on the standard adopted in New ..., in order to cooperate with the ... York Market. This is also the ... with raw cotton transactions; ... too, the deliveries are made on ...rican standards so that the transac... may be made smoothly. The ... of these exchanges by foreigners ...creasing with the years, for every ...ty is accorded to them in the ...et.

...he average of the turn-over on these ...anges for the last five years is as ...ws:

STOCK EXCHANGES

...Transactions .. 56,843,000 shares
... " .. 59,424,000 "
...ngs in Actual .. 8,644,000 "
...rnment Bonds .. 286,874,000 Yen

RICE EXCHANGE

...Transactions .. 245,159,000 Koku

RAW SILK EXCHANGE

...Transactions .. 24,716,000 Kin

...OTTON YARN EXCHANGE

...Transactions .. 1,138,000 bales

SUGAR EXCHANGE

...Transactions .. 20,000,000 bags

STOCK EXCHANGE

...he mode of buying and selling on ...market at the Osaka Stock Exchange ...s described below:

...SSIONS.—Dealing is done in four ...ons, two in the morning and two ...he afternoon. The first sessions ... in the morning and afternoon are ...d the opening sessions, and the ...nd the closing sessions. The open... sessions begin at a fixed hour and ...actions are made in one de...tion at a time in the order of the ... beginning with current month ...ery, then second month pelivery, and finally third month delivery. Upon the striking of clappers, the buyers and sellers make offers competitively and when the quantities and prices of the offers on both sides have balanced on the whole, another signal with the clappers announces the fixing of the transactions. Below we describe the process in detail.

SALES AND PURCHASES.—The orders are of two sorts, one with a price limit and the other with no limit. The object of the latter is to sell or purchase at any price obtainable, while in the former the transactions are to be made within a certain limit of price. On the market various signs are made with the hands and fingers. Showing of the palm is the sign of an offer to sell and showing of the back of the hand of an offer to buy. Ten sen, which is the unit, is expressed by showing the forefinger, twenty sen by the forefinger and the middle finger, thirty sen by the forefinger, middle finger and ring finger, forty sen by all fingers except the thumb, fifty sen by the thumb and all fingers, sixty sen by the thumb and the forefinger, seventy sen by the thumb, forefinger and middle finger, eighty sen by the thumb and all fingers except the forefinger, and ninety sen by the thumb with all the fingers bent. One yen is indicated by the forefinger rounded small, and ten yen by the forefinger rounded big. At the same time with the showing of the hand, the operators must call out, for instance, "Ichikai" (ten sen purchase) or "Ni-Yari" (twenty sen sale).

INDICATION OF QUANTITIES OFFERED.—The number of shares offered for sale or purchase is expressed by finger signs in the same way as the prices, and at the same time it must be called out loudly.

MAKING CONTRACTS.—Upon the stroke of the clappers announcing the commencing of transactions, the purchasers and sellers make known their prices and quantities by calling them out and by finger signs. The purchasers or sellers who want to take the initiative in the transaction go forward and strike the hands of offerers,—that is, if one is a seller, he will go up and strike the hand of a purchaser, quickly showing him the quantity he has to sell, and the contract is made immediately. The contract thus made is entered in the register by the registering clerk on the platform, and when the price is fixed by the stroke of the clappers all transactions are registered at this fixed price.

ORDER OF MAKING CONTRACTS.—The contracts are first made between the sellers and purchasers who attach no limit to the price, when the quantity offered for sale exceeds that demanded by the purchasers, the sellers then make contracts with the purchasers who offer the best prices, and vice versa. Then the contracts between purchasers and sellers who attach limits to their prices follow. Both parties endeavour to make contracts with those who offer better terms than the limit they hold.

CONCLUSION OF THE CONTRACT.—The contracts made between the parties who attach no price limit are fixed whatever price is established. The contracts between the parties who attach no price limit, and those who attach a price limit, will materialize no matter what price is established, if the transaction was made on the initiative of the latter, but if it was made on the initiative of the former, the contract may materialize or not according to circumstances, as in the case of the contracts between those parties who attach price limits, as explained below.

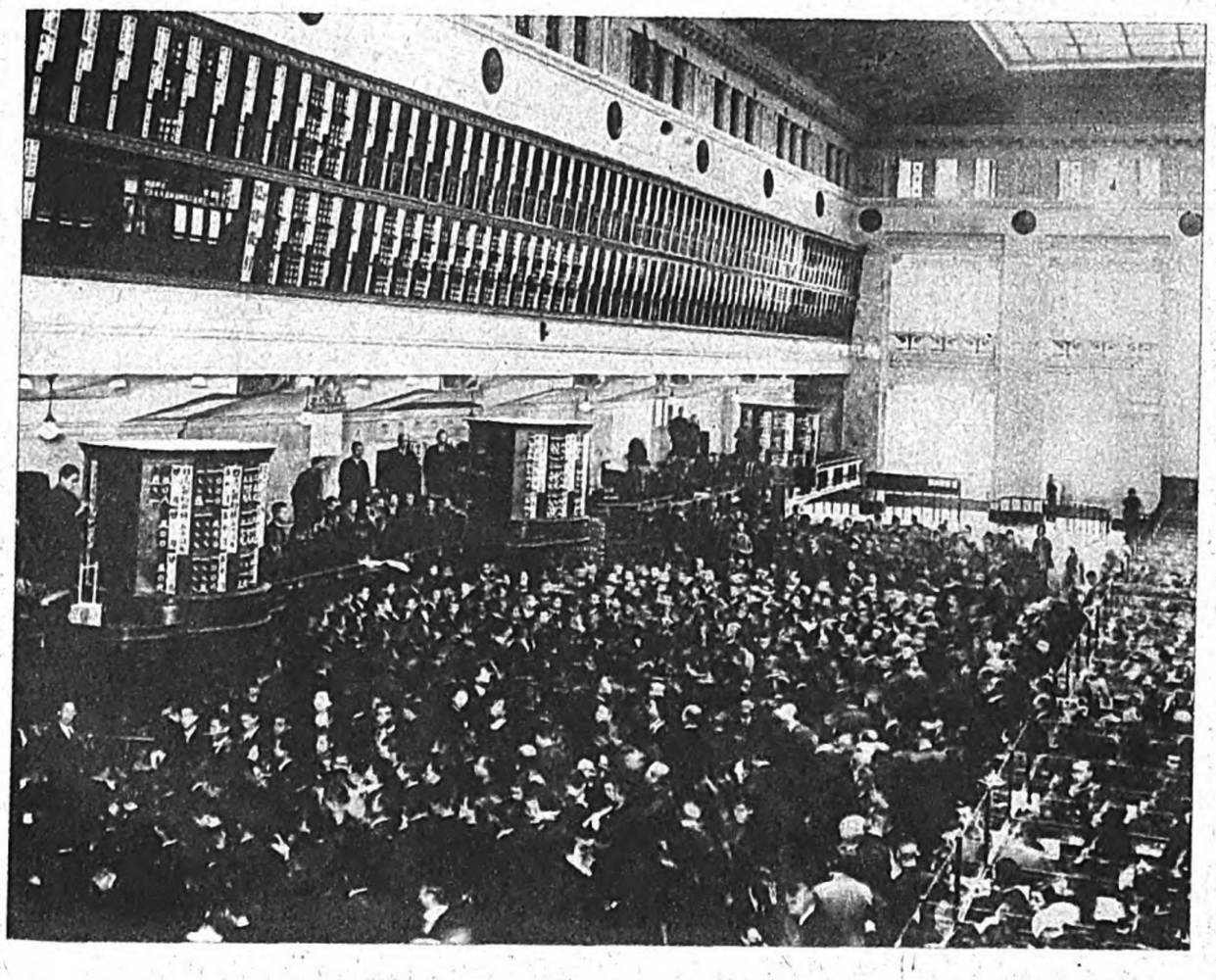
CONTRACTS WITH PRICE LIMITS.—In this case the contracts sometimes materialize and sometimes fail according to the prices established.

OFFERERS AND ACCEPTORS.—The offerer goes forth and proposes a contract to a purchaser or seller, as the case may be, whose price limit is within his own limit, and there the contract is made. When the price is established later at the limit offered, the contract of course materializes. If not, the contract materializes only when the price established is favourable to the acceptor or the party who made the contract on the initiative of the other party. The contract fails, however, when the price established is unfavourable to him. Thus the offerer, or the party who takes the initiative in the contract, is placed in the position of disadvantage.

OFFERERS OR PROPOSERS OF THE CONTRACT.—The offerer, or the party who takes the initiative in the contract, has the disadvantage of the contract materializing only when the price established is unfavourable to him, but when the price established is favourable to him the contract fails. In order to save himself from this disavdantage, the offerer when he has perceived that the price will be established to his disadvantage, has to take a reverse step before the price is established, and offer to sell if he was a purchaser, or to purchase if he was a seller, and neutralize his previous transactions.

On the other hand, when the offerer perceives that the price will be established favourably to him and the contract will fail, must before the price is established, make another contract with another party so that he may make the desired transaction. For instance if one took the initiative and made a contract for the purchase at 50 sen, and if the price was about to be established at 40 sen, his contract would fail and he would lose his chance, although the price established was below his limit. He would then make a new offer and make a contract at 40 sen before the price was established at this figure.

ACCEPTOR OR THE PARTY WHO MAKES A CONTRACT ON THE INITIATIVE OF THE OTHER PARTY.—The acceptor's position is very safe and of great advantage, for the contract materializes when the price established is within his limit or favourable to him, and fails when it is unfavourable to him. While the offerer has often to go through the trouble of making various arrangements, the acceptor can quietly wait for the result of his contract.



The Tokyo Stock Exchange in Session

THE OSAKA SAMPIN EXCHANGE

HISTORY.—This exchange was licensed in 1893, and organized the following year with a capital of 150,000 yen, of which half was paid up. At present it is capitalized at 5,000,000 yen, of which 2,750,000 yen is paid up.

HEAD OF DIRECTORATE.—President, Mr. Shu Watanabe; Managing Director Mr. Kishiro Kishi.

SYSTEM.—The Exchange consists of two departments. The first department, which deals in cotton yarns, being a joint stock company, the department takes all the responsibilities for the transactions. The second department, which deals in raw cotton, being on the membership system, the members jointly take responsibility for the transactions.

ARTICLES DEALT IN AND THE UNIT—The standard of transactions of cotton yarns dealt in on this exchange is 20 counts left twisted. The transactions are made on the basis of sale on description, but delivery can be made in different qualities by grading, and the unit of delivery is ten bales.

In raw cotton transactions the prices are quoted for American middling grade per 100 kin, and the unit of delivery is 10 bales, and different qualities may be delivered by means of grading.

In both cases the transactions are made at two sessions in the morning and two in the afternoon.

THE SECOND DEPARTMENT—There are only two exchanges in the East, where raw cotton is dealt in. They are our Sampin Exchange and the Cotton Exchange in Shanghai. In the latter, however, the standard grade of delivery is Chinese cotton, and moreover the turn-over there is far smaller than that at our Sampin Exchange. The Second Department of the Sampin Exchange was opened for transactions in December, 1923. Not only Indian cotton dealers but also Americans like Mr. Anderson are making use of this exhange, which is becoming of the nature of an international market.

Below is given the turn-overo fcotton yarns dealt in in the First Department for the last 5 years:

1924	6,219,270	bales
1925	6,346,300	"
1926	9,604,955	"
1927	9,650,825	"
1928	8,470,790	"
1929 (up to June)	2,836,960	"

The turn-over of raw cotton dealt in in the Second Department is as follows:

1927	1,617,850	bales
1928	2,706,120	"
1929 (up to June)	778,890	"

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EXCHANGES IN JAPAN TODAY

At the end of 1929 there were throughout the country, thirty-eight exchanges with an aggregate capital of ¥168,000,000. All these Exchanges are stock companies, the only exception being the Nagoya Cotton Yarn Exchange, the Otaru Rice Exchange, the Osaka Sugar Exchange, the Tokyo Sugar Exchange, the Kobe Bean Cakes and Raw Silk Exchange, the Osaka Cotton Exchange, which are voluntary association. These exchanges are classified as follows:

Stock Exchanges	11
Rice Exchanges	27
Raw Silk Exchanges	2
Cotton and Cotton Yarn Exchanges	4
Cotton Stuff Exchange	1
Wheat Exchange	1
Bean Cakes Exchanges	2
Sugar Exchanges	2
Total	50

The difference between the registered and actual numbers in that there are cases in which one Exchange in addition carries on business of different kinds.

The Government, desiring to have the Exchanges in Japan organized under a voluntary association system after the New York Stock Exchange Limits the issue of licenses to those which are organized under a voluntary association system. In this way the authorities hope to check the speculative tendencies of the people. Even the existing Exchanges will become voluntary association in future, best the fact that the members of the existing Exchanges have not the same financial capacity, makes it rather difficult for the time being, to change the system of the present Exchanges from Stock Companies into voluntary associations.

The Exchanges under the voluntary association system in Japan have not yet a sufficient fund of common deposits of the members on account of their being recently established, so that as a temporary step they collect nearly the same amount of deposits for the trade of the members as that collect by an Exchange under a stock company system.

The enormous amount of trade carried on in the Japanese Exchanges reflects the expansion of finance caused by the World War. Not only that, but all Exchanges and more especially the Stock Exchanges have practically beeh internationalised, since they deal with foreign securities or those debentures and bonds which are issued in foreign markets by Japanese Companies.

With the increase of foreign investment in Japanese debentures the business of these Stock Exchanges will be further expanded.

The following are the Leading Exchanges in various Commercial Cities in Japan Today.

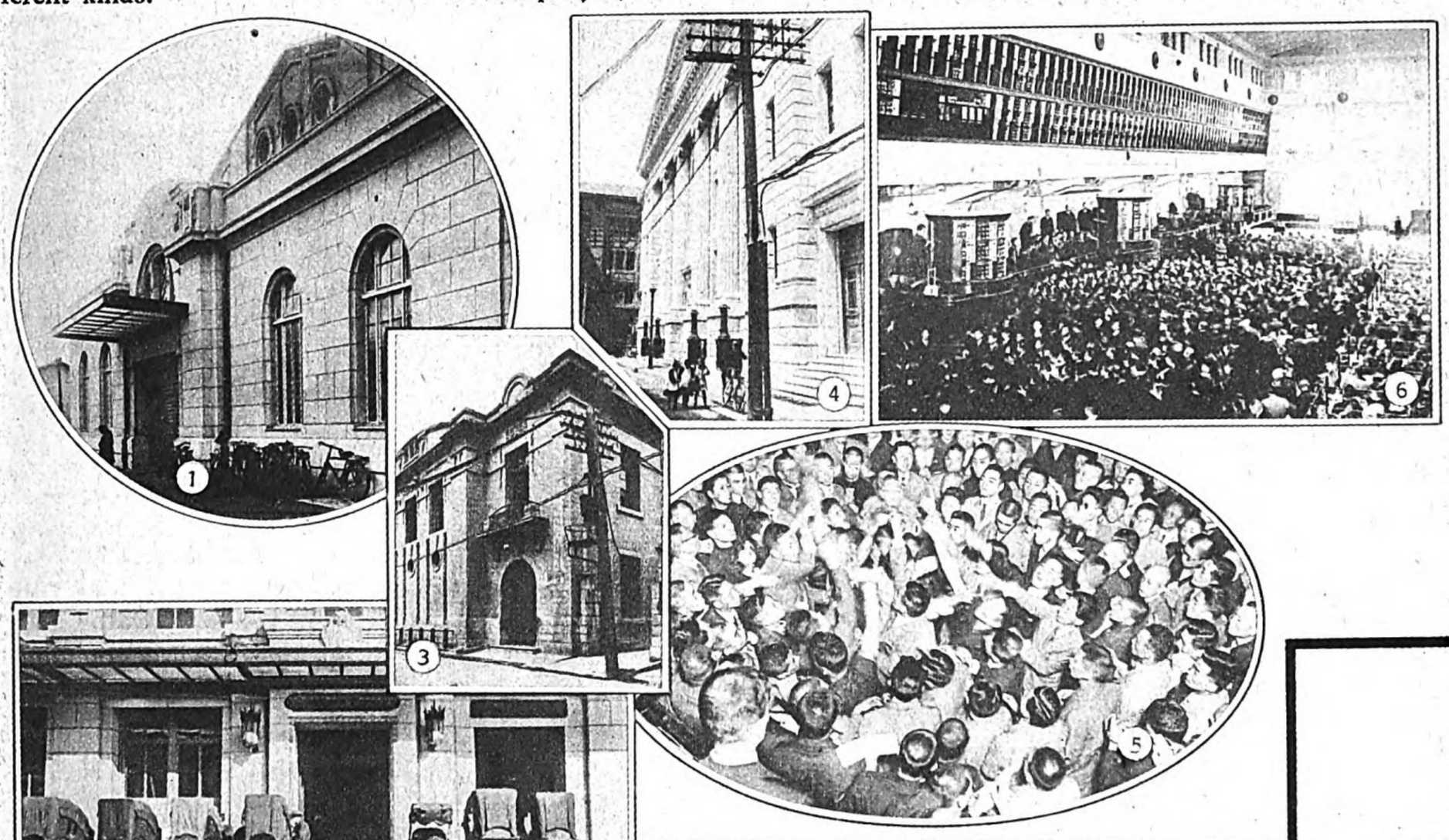
Name	Capital	Member
Tokyo Rice Exchange	4,750,000	90
Tokyo Stock Exchange	33,500,000	145
Tokyo Sugar Exchange	Assn System	31
Osaka Rice Exchange	4,750,000	113
Osaka Cotton Exchange	2,750,000	115
Osaka Stock Exchange	29,500,000	141
Osaka Sugar Exchange	Assn System	42
Yokohama Raw Silk Exchange	6,500,000	42
Kobe Exchanges		
Stock, Rice and Silk	3,125,000	29
Nagoya Stock Exchange	3,375,000	65

GENZAN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE

THE PORT OF GENZAN

Export port for rice, wheat, soy beans, raw cotton, etc.

Genzan is situated on the Eastern coast of Korea, and is one of the most important ports of the peninsula. With the development of industry and agriculture in the hinterland, commerce has greatly increased and the need for further improvement of the port is keenly felt. At present the coast railway line to Fusan and the Neigen line are under construction. With the completion of these two lines, the port will present a quite new aspect. The chief exports from the port are corn, fish and micellaneous goods, while the imports are cotton yarns, cotton cloth, kerosene oil, etc.



PHOTOS:

1. Nagoya Stock Exchange
2. Osaka Cotton and Cotton Yarn Exchange Building
3. Osaka Rice Exchange
4. Tokyo Stock Exchange
5. Bidding Crowds on the Market
6. Market stands of the Osaka Stock Exchange

The Member of the Osaka Stock Exchange

TANAKA SHINZO

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(Continued from Page 129)

Year	Supply	Demand	Stocks
1912	100	100	100
1914	115	112	146
1916	136	125	226
1918	168	150	386
1920	202	280	471
1922	232	228	284
1924	294	285	370
1926	359	244	547
1927	291	371	634
1928	427	418	669
Rate of annul increase	21%	19.8%	35.5%

Although the financial depression has
d, more or less, to do with the in-
ease of paper stock, the factor chiefly
sponsible for it seems to have been
hasty expansion of productive
pacity carried out by Japanese mill
ners, the number of paper making
chines installed increasing from 7
1924 to 151 in 1928, or 29 per
nt., and that of inches from 10,039
14,366 inches, or 4.28 per cent.
oreover, it should be taken into con-
eration that the mill owners, making
orts to improve their equipment, have
de the actual productive capacity
the greater.

In view of this over production,
panese mill owners were compelled
restrict the production of printing
pers (including "Torinoko" and
lozo" papers) by means of curtail-
nt of operations of between 17 and
per cent. at the end of August, 1926.
the year 1928, however, the con-
nption of foreign style paper at home
reased markedly owing to the flood
cheap editions of popular literature
own as the One Yen Series, to the
eral election, in which political
paganda of all kinds consumed a
ge amount of paper, and to the
thronement, in connection with
ich a large amount of paper was
d in various special editions of
wspapers and periodicals; and even-
lly, this prosperity enabled the
l owners to cancel the curtailment
6 per cent. at the end of November
year. Nevertheless, as the prod-
s have begun to pile up since
y this year, making an excess of
ply over demand inevitable, the
l owners, to meet the situation, have
n compelled to apply again both
igatory and voluntary (to be in-
nnified) curtailment of operations
10 per cent. on printing papers,
ending for one year from the 1st of
y this year.

Future Prospects of Demand and Supply

The total productive capacity of the
mills which are members of the
an Paper Association is estimat-
at about 1,450,000,000 pounds
ually. This indicates that Japan
expanded its productive capacity
he paper industry to such an extent
t it can hardly dispose of all of
annual output.

As the times seem to be getting
se every year, as much increase in
demand for foreign style paper as
he past may not be expected in the
mediate future. However, the fact
t the Japanese rate of consumption
paper per head is very low as com-
ed with those of the United States
England, the figures for last year be-
19.3 pounds for Japan and 174
nds and 58 pounds for the United
tes and England respectively, may
fidently be taken as indicating the
sible expansion of Japan's domestic
sumption in the future. It may be
ected as well that an increase of
nand in China, with her cultural
elopment, will naturally increase the
ount of Japanese paper exported
hat country. Moreover, the alliance,
ich was formed early this year be-
en the Fuji and Ohji Paper Manu-
turing Companies, will, no doubt,
much for the controlling of pro-
tion, or the adjusting of the relation
ween demand and supply.

udging from the above mentioned
s, it may be concluded that the un-
urable balance of the paper trade,
to over-expansion of productive
acity, is but of transitory nature,
that we need not be very anxious
ut future prospects so far as the
eral aspect is concerned.

Railways and Automobiles

THE traffic organs in Japan have been much affected by the financial depression. The railways and tramways have also been dealt a severe blow by autotransit, which is developing with tremendous rapidity. Most of the railways of Japan are run by the state; all trunk lines are nationalised; while the roads are owned by urban and rural districts.

The railway mileage, including the state and local railways and tramways, stood at 14,000 miles at the end of 1928 and that of the roads at 263,058 *ri* (one *ri* is 2.4 miles).

State Railways

A capital of ¥2,500,000,000 has been invested in the state railways, whose mileage was 8,455 miles at the end of 1928. Moreover, a plan for the construction of 8,000 miles of new lines has been adopted, the work to extend over ten years commencing in 1929. The cost of construction of the new lines and improvement of the old lines is estimated at ¥1,300,000,000. During 1928 the number of passengers carried was 896,568,000, fares paid amounting to ¥289,408,000; the total tonnage of the goods carried was 79,033,000 tons, the revenue from which was ¥213,232,000. As compared with the previous year, these figures show an increase of 118,480 passengers (or ¥17,372,000) and an increase of 12,266 tons of goods (or ¥12,204,000). As compared with the expanded capital and expense entailed in the increase of mileage and rolling stock, the revenue per mile has been diminished far below the estimate of the Railway Department.

The most noteworthy thing about the revenue of the Japanese state railways is the fact that the profits made on passengers are far greater than those made on goods, contrary to the established rule of railways in foreign countries, where the income from passengers is less than that from goods. This fact is further shown by the ratio between passenger and goods cars, which is very unfavorable to the latter as compared with foreign countries; there were 9,800 passenger cars as against 64,200 goods cars in 1927. This is due to geographical conditions in Japan, which make it more convenient to resort to water for the transportation of goods in large quantities for long distances, thus confining the land traffic to short hauls.

The Government's Railway Policy

The government's railway policy, formulated by the Railway Minister of the late Tanaka Cabinet, was a positive one; it was "construction first and improvement next" which was just the reverse of the negative policy of his predecessor. This positive policy of the late Tanaka Cabinet, which was embodied in the budget for 1929, was severely criticised by the opposition party on the ground that it aimed at the expansion of party influence rather than at the professed building of local industry, but the government proceeded with the execution of the policy, and even added 34 new lines to the list for construction, thus increasing it to over 140 lines. The total cost of ¥1,310,240,000 was to be defrayed in ten years beginning in 1929. ¥630,550,000 being for construction and ¥679,690,000 for improvement. In the first six years public loans amounting to ¥80,000,000 were to be raised annually to meet the costs of construction. In this way three hundred miles of new lines were to be constructed every year. The Tanaka Cabinet, however, resigned in the course of the year, and the Hamaguchi Cabinet was organized. The new Cabinet, following its program of retrenchment in national expenditure, established a far-reaching plan for readjusting the national loans, which had been rapidly expanded. In the railway accounts, the public loan of ¥80,000,000 to be raised this year was reduced to ¥69,000,000. In order to meet the deficit thus caused, the following measure was adopted:

1. The survey of new lines to be undertaken this year should go forward.
2. Some portion of the 327 miles of lines to be opened this year should be carried over to next year, but in general all the lines planned should be opened as announced.
3. All public works to be newly started should be postponed.

Furthermore the public loan to be raised annually was reduced by half beginning with the next financial year, so that even if the profits from railway operation are added, the total sum for construction of new lines will be only some forty-five or six million yen. The thirty-four new lines which were provided for in this year's budget have been either postponed or struck off the list and replaced by automobile lines. Thus a great revolution is being wrought in the construction of railways, and the railway policy of the Seiyukai Cabinet is being utterly destroyed. It is expected that this change of the railway policy by the new cabinet will be the object of a relentless attack by the opposition parties in the coming session of the Diet.

From the beginning of 1930, the metre system of measurement will be adopted on all lines. The metre system was adopted in Japan several years ago and the Railway Department has decided to use the system from 1930 on. The kilometre will become the unit for estimating freight rates, and goods will be weighed in grammes instead of British pounds and tons.

Local Railways and Tramways

The mileage of the local railways at the end of 1928 was 3,540 miles, the number of the companies was 230, and the total amount of the capital invested was ¥600,000,000. The mileage of the local tramways was 1,680 miles, the number of the companies 156, and the total amount of the capital invested ¥2,000,000,000. About eighty per cent. of the tramways use electric power, but one half of the local railways still use steam. The recent tendency is for the local railways to use electric power in order to ensure a reduction of freight rates and an increase of transit capacity, thus enabling the companies to successfully compete with the autolines, which are rapidly developing.

The railways in Japan are in principle owned by the State, so that no private lines parallel to state lines are permitted. The local railways and tramways owned by private companies are confined to branch lines of the trunk lines of the state railways or to those which are local in character. Thus partly through the financial depression, and partly through the increase of transit by automobiles, the profits of the railways are gradually decreasing. The net profit of seventeen per cent. which was realised during the world war has dropped to 7.2%, while the tramways have had their net profits reduced from 12.5% to 9.7%. There is also a tendency toward a further drop in profits. Now that the lifting of the gold embargo is about to be realised, the reduction of dividends is being seriously considered by the railway and tramway companies, which have an enormous amount of capital invested. The subsidy granted to local railways by the government amounted to seven million yen in the budget for 1929. The only exceptions to this unfavorable tendency among local railways are the business achievements of the electric railways on the outskirts of big cities. These railway companies are continuing to pay high dividends.

The fact that the state railways, which are still run on narrow gauge lines, and which are not yet electrified, are not adequate to transport the dwellers in the suburbs of big cities, accounts for the development of the electric railways in these districts. The limited transit capacity of the state railways has evoked a tendency to connect big cities with electric lines. Plan after plan has been started for a high speed electric railway between Tokyo and Osaka, between Kyoto, Osaka and Kobe, between Nagoya and Osaka, etc. The street tramways in Tokyo, Osaka, etc. are being replaced by motor buses, underground railways and elevated high speed railways.

Automobiles and Roads

Automobile traffic has had a marvelous development in Japan. Automobiles are no longer found only in cities, but they are universally utilised in every nook and corner of the country. The number of automobiles in Japan at the end of 1927 was 50,000, which figure was increased to 60,000 during the next year. The reduction of prices of both motor cars, and gasoline are responsible for the development of the motor-car traffic. Another factor is the improvement of roads. Recently government permission has been obtained for the construction of roads exclusively for motor cars. In this way automobiles are threatening the very existence of local railways and tramways. In this connection it may be mentioned that the Railway Department has recently published a scheme for the construction of an extensive system of auto roads and a committee on investigation has beenappointed. The Minseito Cabinet which has fundamentally changed the positive policy of the previous cabinet intends to substitute motor-cars for railways, if as a result of the investigation by the committee such a course should be thought profitable. But in arriving at a decision, a thorough examination will be made into the economic merits of constructing parallel railway and motor-car roads for the 140 lines included in the plan originally made by the Seiyukai cabinet. Whether the motor-car business thus planned shall be undertaken by the state or by private concerns will be decided as a result of the investigation by the committee. But the probability is that the business will be managed by the state, or if it is entrusted to private management, the government will grant subsidies to the private companies. It is, however, to be remembered that if auto traffic has caused the increase of goods and passengers autos will be substituted for railways so that the construction of a system of auto roads will not affect the fundamental principle of the state possession of railways or the present law for the construction of railways. In the meantime five or six lines out of the thirty-four planned by the previous cabinet will have autos substituted, and after ascertaining the real business results, necessary investigations will be commenced for the construction of a system of auto roads throughout the country. The investigation to be made by the committee consists of the following four items:

1. The automobilization of the railways, as confined to the branch lines, the trunk lines not being touched.
2. Sections on which goods transport will be possible by autos, as well as passenger traffic.
3. Sections which can be more economically constructed for autos than for railways.
4. Sections in which existing roads can be utilised.

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THE STATUS OF YOKOHAMA

Time works wonders. From heaps of debris in the great earthquake and fire of 1923 the City of Yokohama, like the Phoenix, has risen to a status far more significant and prosperous than that it enjoyed before the catastrophe. All land and sea facilities, which were totally destroyed, have reached a stage of completion. The city is building great breakwaters embracing an area more than double that formerly enclosed. One of the most noteworthy events during the intervening period is the realization of the Greater Yokohama. Yokohama's population has increased from 300,000 before the quake to 570,000. Significance is attached to the reclamation of a large water area under the direct control of the city, which is destined to become an industrial zone. These are the three largest enterprises of Yokohama. Other direct enterprises of the city worth mentioning include the buying of land leases from foreigners, the erection of a commercial and industrial museum, hotel building, bunding work, land readjustment, road improvement and sundry social enterprises.

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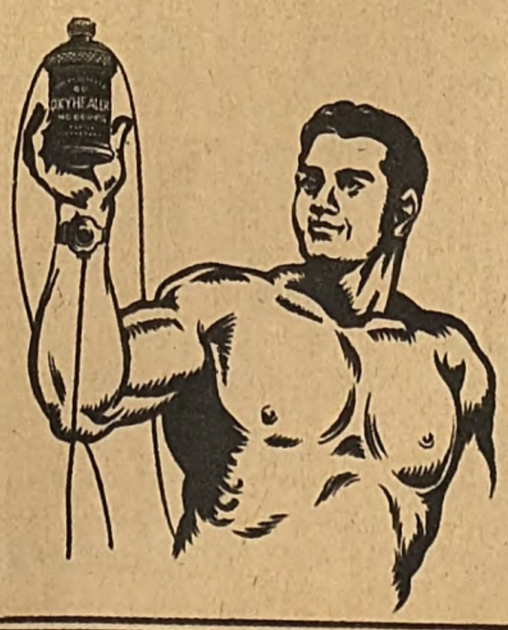

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The Woollen Textile Industry

WHEN the world war broke out, the participation of Great Britain ought about the cessation of the port of woollen goods from Great tain, which had almost monopolized market. This, and more especially fact that our people took to this erprise in view of its great necessity ring war time, stimulated the woollen tile industry of our country and led its appearance on the scene. Since n, in the post-war adjustment period, ugh it has been unable to make pected progress due to the general pression of the financial world, industry, long left in a primitive ge, has made remarkable progress may be seen by the following statis- of output in the years 1921 and 27, as compared with the year 1912. king 100 as the index number of the tput of all sorts of woollen goods in 12, the increase was as follows :

	1921	1927
Wool	573	842
Cotton ..	434	475
Silk	427	325
Linen	459	480

This astonishing increase shows the at demand for woollen goods in our ntry, while as we will show later, import of woollen goods remained tionary during these years. Now us consider the increase of woollen icles by category since the year 1912. e output of woollen cloth and serges ounted in 1912 to a little less than 00,000 yards, while in 1927 it had ched 23,500,000 yards, showing an rease of nearly 24 times. Still it st be noted that the figure for the tput of these thick stuffs in 1927 es not amount to even one-third of t for woollen goods other than ck stuffs produced in the same year 27). Muslin de lain is the chief the lighter products. In 1927, e output amounted to 174,588,000 rds. The output of Japanese serges ounted to 26,997,000 yards in the ne year. Besides, blankets and nnels amounted to ¥10,000,000 d miscellaneous articles to about 7,000,000. All the above products re destined for consumption in pan proper, excepting a negligible antity intended for export to China, wantung leased territory, British dia, and for Korea and other places. ill, excepting muslin, the home oduction of other woollen goods is ufficient for the total demand of e country and we are obliged to port from various European coun- es, such as Great Britain, France and rmany, to amounts given in the llowing table :

(,000 omitted)

1924	1925	1926	1927	1928
3,596	58,415	29,845	35,164	31,776

As seen above, the import of woollen ods, chiefly cloth and serges, in- eased considerably just after the rthquake, owing to speculative im- rtation. Later in 1926, however, e customs tariff revisions resulted in decline of imports in this field. The ct that the chief items of import nsist of heavy cloth and serges shows ir technical inferiority in the manu- cture of thick stuffs.

This is, briefly speaking, the present tuation of our country with regard the production, consumption and portation of woollen goods. Then hat is the condition of demand and pply for the raw materials for these ods, such as raw wool and tops ? s for raw wool, the home production of negligible quantity ; and it is tirely supplied from Australia, the reatest wool producing country of e world, and other countries.

(unit 1,000 pounds)

	Tops	Raw wool
1924	10,785	59,513
1925	11,457	70,145
1926	8,547	73,054
1927	5,967	99,238
1928	1,715	115,695

(Besides these, we import every year bout 500,000 pounds of goat wool and camel's hair.)

From this table we perceive the striking contrast between the increase in the import of raw wool and the decrease in that of tops. This is due to the fact that many wool manufacturers have adopted the carding system in recent years. This should be regarded as a step forward in the woollen textiles industry in our country. However, the machinery for wool spinning being unsatisfactory, home products find themselves below the horizon of self-supply. Consequently the import of wool, apart from raw wool and tops, amounts to the following enormous sums :

(Unit 1,000 pounds)

1924	20,772	1927	18,225
1925	15,498	1928	11,549
1926	12,258		

According to statistics for 1928, the chief exporting countries of wool are in order of importance, as follows : Germany, Poland, England and France. The importation of wool was cut off abruptly during the war, but, directly after the war, it not only regained the old ground but attained to figures several times higher than the pre-war imports.

Such is the general aspect of the present tendency of our woollen textile from industry. Now let us consider it from the view point of productive organisation, which is one of the most important problems of to-day. The wool industry in our country, as stated above, made considerable advance during the war, and it may be well compared to-day to the perfected organisations of Europe and America. However, this rapid progress was followed by an equally rapid crisis due first to exaggerated expansion during the war boom, and second to the fact that, ignoring the necessity of coordination between the large quantitative production system by big companies and the small quantitative production system in the hands of private enterprises, activities were solely directed towards the larger production system. Thus the balance was disturbed between the industry in plain goods and raw materials for big scale enterprise on the one hand and in pattern goods for private enterprise on the other. This fault was pointed out lately by experts, and in many quarters, especially in the prefecture of Aichi, there has been in recent years a tendency toward steady and constant advance in private enterprise.

(In thousands of yen)

	Output of woollen textiles in Aichi prefecture	Total output by companies
1924	49,852	119,072
1925	52,446	124,889
1926	57,737	107,385
1927	60,734	99,323
1928	68,982	164,482

In the woollen textile industry, Japan started with spinning. As it has not been able to make any marked progress, this branch still remains under the pressure of foreign goods, while the carding which began much later has developed remarkably. Especially wool manufacture has arrived almost at the same level of perfection with foreign goods, and by increasing the output at home, the import will naturally be stopped in the future. With regard to the manufacture of other woollen goods, heavy cloth and serges in particular, there remains much room for improvement.

But the woollen textile industry in Japan will not stop developing, as she is favoured by two factors : first, geographically Japan is situated near Australia, the greatest wool producing country, and secondly, she is artificially protected by a tariff wall.

But real prosperity will be realized only when there is complete harmony between the two industries, the one on a big scale with companies which produce raw material, wool and other woollen stuff such as military clothes, etc., and the other on a small scale with private enterprises producing special woollen goods of higher quality.

Lastly, the year 1929 was beneficial to woollen workers as well as workers in other textile industries. It was in this year that the factory act was revised in order to free women and young workers from night labour, and thus a step was taken, though belated, toward adopting the special provisions laid down for Japan in the Washington Convention of 1919, limiting working hours generally to 8 hours a day and 48 hours a week.

As for the difference of efficiency resulting from the inauguration of this reform, we do not, for the present, possess exact figures, which will be available only after October, 1929. But considering the number of workers protected by the prohibition of night work as about half of the total number of workers in the woollen textile industry, the working hours after the suppression of night work represent 92.5 as against 100 working hours under the previous arrangement, and half of the difference in productivity (7.5) can be restored by the improvement of factory machinery and the increasing of efficiency. Thus the decrease of productivity resulting from the suppression of night work will be only 3.75 per cent. Taking this figure as the basis, the presumptive figures for the annual output of woollen goods are as follows : (Figures concerning the annual output before the suppression of night work were taken from the statistics of the year 1927.)

	Presumptive figures for annual output after the suppression of night work (,000 omitted)	Presumptive decrease of output
Muslin ..	168,041 yards	6,547 yards
Japanese serges .	25,985 ,,	1,012 ,,
European serges .	13,347 ,,	520 ,,
Cloth ..	9,355 ,,	364 ,,
Flannel ..	3,143 ,,	122 ,,
Blankets .	1,009 sheets	39 sheets
	101 yards	3 yards
Miscellaneous .	35,851 yen	1,396 yen
Total ..	229,754 yen	8,925 yen

Trust Business in Japan

UNTIL 1924, when the present laws for trust business and trust enterprises were enacted and put into force, there were no laws regulating the trust business in this country, except the regulations controlling the mortgage debenture trust. With the economic development of the country, there evolved an increasing need for trust services, and as many as 500 trust companies came into existence within a rather short period of time. Most of them, however, possessed very limited means and enjoyed little confidence, and only a few were worth the name of trust companies. The evils of the existence of so many weak concerns became manifest, and there was a growing need for some measure to weed out unsound companies for the safe development of the business. In consequence, the government at last enacted the above mentioned laws for regulating the trust business in 1924. By their strict enforcement and very scrupulous supervision by the government, shaky and unsound companies have since been almost entirely weeded out, and there now exist only 37 trust companies in the country, with an aggregate capital of ¥335,000,000, of which ¥92,300,000 is paid up. Their reserve funds amount to ¥17,000,000.

It is only five years since the trust companies started operations under the new trust law, and still the trust properties have reached the enormous figure of 1,392 millions, of which money in trust constitutes 1,138 millions. The trust business now occupies an important and prominent position in the economic life of the country. The increase of trust properties in 1925 and 1926 was about 200 million yen, but in 1927 the rate of increase leapt to over 300 millions, and the following year it was 350 millions. The growth, however, has been somewhat checked this year, and the present forecast is that it will be about 200 millions.

This phenomenal growth of trust property may be attributed to the public confidence in the business, over which the government exercises vigilant supervision, and no room is allowed for the existence of suspicious concerns. The companies backed by the Mitsui, the Mitsubishi, the Yasuda, the Sumitomo and other well known interests of the country, are enjoying the unlimited confidence of the public. Another inducement for deposits in trust companies is the high rate of bonus allowed to depositors, as compared with the low rate of interest paid by banks.

The deposits of cash now constitute from 70 to 80 per cent. of the trust properties in the hands of trust companies, and the trust of other properties than money is still in a backward condition. The rate of increase of the deposits of money, however, has now slackened, after reaching its full development. The business has passed through the first stage of its development, and is now entering upon its second stage, where in all probability the companies will make it their special effort to attract the trust of properties other than money.

Along with rapidly increasing deposits of money, the demand for funds is rather irregular, and many trust companies are now placed in difficulties in finding profitable employment for the increasing funds in hand. Naturally the bonus paid to the depositors is gradually falling. Thus the first class trust companies are now allowing a bonus of about 5.57% per annum.

With the growth of the business, weaknesses in the present regulations are becoming apparent, and efforts are being made by both the government and the companies for their revision. The following are the principal points now being raised by those concerned :

1. Double taxation on the profits of the trust loans must be revised.

2. The mortagage debenture law now in force was enacted in 1905 and is out of date and inconvenient. It must be revised to suit the present condition of the business.

3. With the development of the trust business, the means of some of the companies have grown to considerable size, and they are demanding the same right to underwrite the issue of government bonds as enjoyed by banks at present.

4. According to the present regulations, the trust companies are required to deposit 10% of their capital as security for the properties in trust. This is insufficient to protect the interests of the depositors, considering that savings banks are required by law to deposit 30% of the savings they receive. With the rapid growth of the properties entrusted to these companies, the necessity for some step to improve the situation is getting more urgent, and investigations are being carried on by the government.

The following table shows the marvellous growth of the trust business in this country :

(In thousands of yen. The rates of bonus are those of the more successful companies.)

Year	Trust Properties (including cash)	Money in Trust	Bonus Paid
1924....	155,804	134,816	8.1%
1925....	327,604	224,820	7.8%
1926....	613,340	423,095	7.3%
1927....	921,619	678,075	6.7%
1928....	1,268,559	1,008,887	6.2%
1929....	1,391,394	1,131,785	5.7%

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Industry in the Colonies

1. CHOSEN

BEFORE the annexation of the peninsula, the industries of Chosen were in quite a primitive condition, and the total value of the output in 1910 did not much exceed 360 million yen. After its annexation by Japan, however, the development was remarkable, for under the constant and painstaking guidance and encouragement of the Government of Chosen, the country achieved wonders and in recent years the output has increased to the great figure of 1,810 million yen annually. We shall examine below some of the principal industries of the country :

A. Agriculture

From ancient times agriculture had constituted the sole important industry of the people, and at present the agricultural products amount to 1,290 million yen, which represent about 72 per cent. of the total value of all the products of the country.

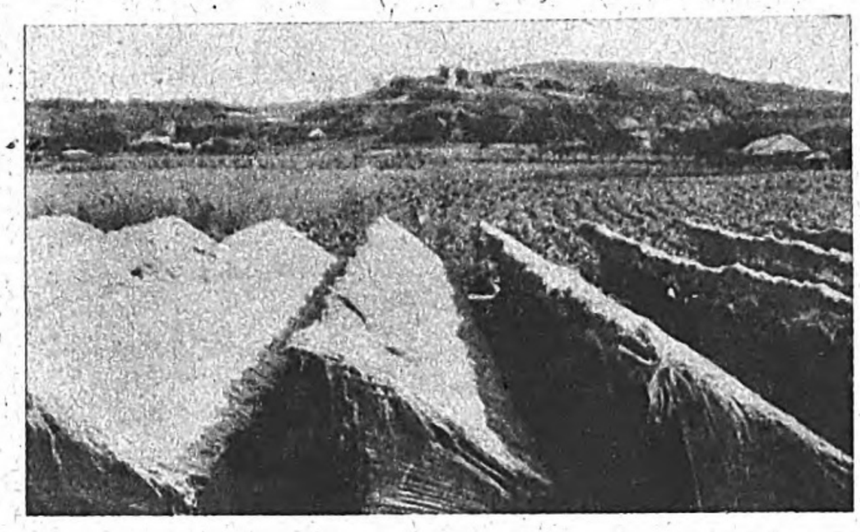
1. Rice.—Naturally rice is the most important crop, and at the same time the most important staple article of export. The total crop last year was 17,298,887 *koku* (one koku is about 5 English bushels). Since 1926 the Government of Chosen has been working on a plan to increase the production of rice by 8,200,000 *koku* by 1940. In the meantime the population of the peninsula will increase, and making allowance for increase of consumption, which will follow the improvement of living conditions of the people, it is confidently expected that there will then be over 10 million *koku* of rice available for export purposes.

A Pineapple Farm in Formosa

2. Raw Cotton.—Both the climate and soil of Chosen are congenial to cotton cultivation, and its cotton has been grown there since ancient times. Thanks to the Government's special encouragement, the production has considerably increased in recent years, and the cotton fields now cover 205,000 *chobu* (one *chobu* or *cho* is nearly 2½ acres), the crop amountly to 150 million *kin* (one *kin* is equal to 1⅓ pounds).

3. Live-Stock Breeding.—The general conditions of the country are favourable for stock-breeding, and above all the people have special skill in cattle raising. According to the latest investigations, there are 586,418 head of cattle in the peninsula. Poultry farming and hog-raising are other businesses extensively pursued by the farmers in addition to their regular work. There are over 6,070,000 chickens, and over 1,240,000 hogs, or 218 chickens and 44 hogs per 100 farmer families.

4. Sericulture.—The country is even better for this industry than Japan proper. The methods used have been rather primitive, but by dint of constant guidance and great encouragement by the Government, sericulture has made considerable advance, and last year's crop of cocoons amounted to 355,192 *koku*. This is especially remarkable when we consider that before the annexation of the country the total crop was only about 10,000 *koku*. The Government expects to increase this amount to a million *koku* by 1940, and for the attainment of this aim, has been working on a programme of encouragement since 1925.

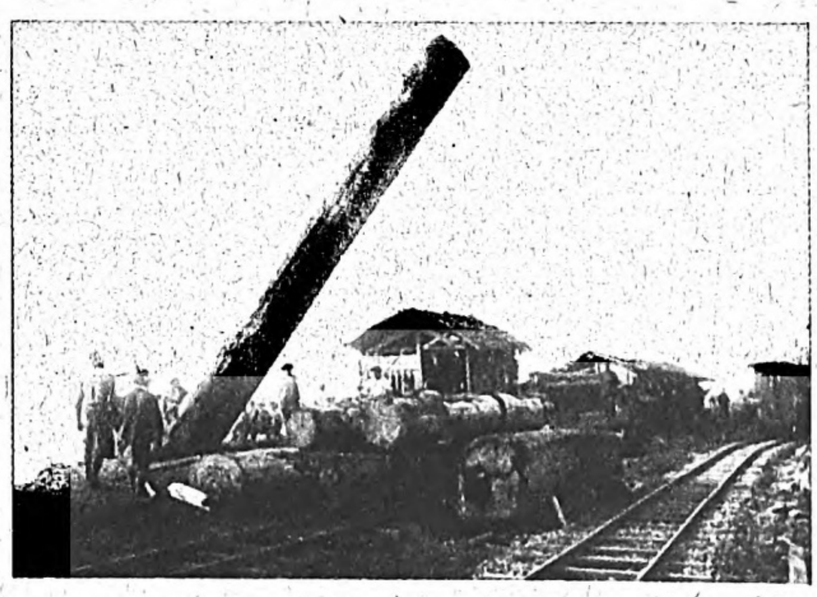


A Ginseng Garden in Korea

5. Soya Beans.—Soya beans are another staple product of the farm. In 1926 the total crop amounted to 4,300,000 *koku*, and the export now amounts to 1,450,000 *koku*.

For other products of the farm we may mention fruits, wheat, millet, potatoes, and ginseng. The last named is a special product of Chosen, and is monopolized by the Government. The output of raw ginseng last year amounted to 154,237 *kin*.

Straw bag making is carried on extensively throughout the country, and last year's output amounted to 33 million bags, of which 2 millions were exported.



Loading Lumber on Mt. Ari

B. Forestry

The forest lands in the country cover an area of 16,472,000 *chobu*, or about 70 per cent. of the total area of the country. All but 50 per cent. of this forest land is in remote places and lacks conveniences of communication and transport, so that it cannot be used in any way to advantage.

C. Marine Industries

As in the case of the other industries, fishing has also enjoyed remarkable development under the new regime. The value of the catch in 1911 was only ¥6,760,000 but it has now amounted to 64 million yen, and in manufactured marine products the output has increased 15 times over that of former years.

D. Manufacturing

Before the annexation there was no manufacturing to speak of in the country. The total output of the manufacturing industry in 1911 was only 43 million yen, which, thanks to official encouragement, has now increased to 328 million yen. In 1911 the factories numbered 250, capitalised at 16 million yen. Today, eighteen years later, the number has increased to 4,900, and the aggregate capital to ¥542,600,000. Weaving, ceramics, paper manufacturing, brewing, steel manufacturing, tanning, etc. are the principal manufacturing industries of Chosen.

E. Mining

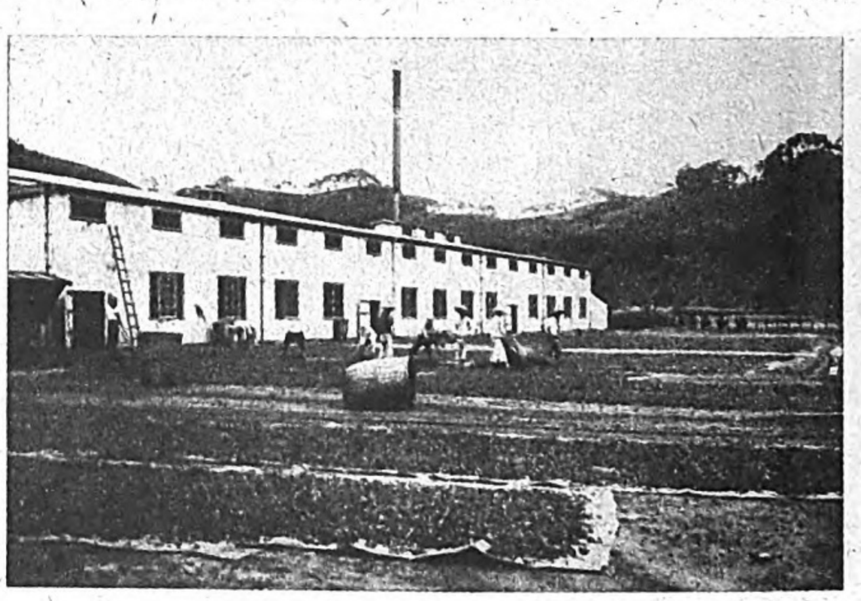
The principal products of the mines in Chosen are gold, gold dust, black-lead, and coal. Others, smaller in quantity, are silver, lead, zinc, etc. The greatest annual output in recent years was ¥30,830,000.

2. TAIWAN

About a generation ago the total annual output of the Island was valued at 88 million yen, which has rapidly increased year by year and is now estimated at 620 million yen a year, practically an eightfold increase.

Agriculture is the chief industry in Taiwan, farm products representing 47 per cent. of the total output of the Island. Next come the manufacturing industries with 41 per cent. Other products are insignificant. Forestry accounts for 6 per cent., marine industries for 3 per cent., and mining for 3 per cent. Agriculture being the principal industry of Taiwan, the economic world of the Island is directly influenced by the crop conditions of the year.

Sugar is the most important product of the Island ; camphor and tea fall far behind, and as for others, there are none worth mentioning. Tea is produced to the value of 14 million yen, and constitutes a staple article of export. Other products are alcohol, iron goods, cement, artificial fertilizers, wheat flour and textiles.



A Tea Factory in Formosa

The Government of Taiwan is working saw mills at Arisan, Hassenzan, and Taiheizan. The Government is also carrying on the afforestation of Arisan on a gigantic scale. Fishing is one of the most promising industries of Taiwan, and the catches along the coasts are rapidly increasing.

Taiwan is an agricultural country, but still the industrialization of the Island is urged in many quarters. This does not mean that Taiwan's agriculture is going to the wall, but it is the natural course of a country which has attained full growth of development. The resumption of construction work on the Jitsugetsutan hydro-electric developments is a step toward the industrialization of the Island.

Lake Jitsugetsutan, Formosa, Near Which a Power Plant is About to be Erected

A. Agriculture

1. Rice.—Next to sugar, rice is the most important product of the Island. The crops for 1928 amounted to about 7 million *koku*, of which about 3 millions were exported to the mother country. In most parts of the Island rice is cropped twice a year, and the three provinces of Taihoku, Taichu and Takao are the largest producers. Since a few years ago the farmers have been cultivating extensively seeds brought from Japan proper, and the crops of this new species last year amounted to 1,300,000 *koku*, of which the larger part was exported to the mother country, for it is best suited for export purposes. The grain native to the Island does not please the Japanese palate, and naturally it does not sell so well as the other.

2. Sugar.—For the last 300 years sugar has been the staple product of Taiwan, and it was the first important article of export. Before the annexation, the sugar industry in the Island was in a most primitive state. The canes were inferior, and the method of manufacturing was infantile. The output did not exceed eight or nine hundred thousand piculs. When Taiwan came into Japan's possession, the Government formulated, first of all, a scheme for the development of the industry. As the first step, it inaugurated a gigantic investigation into the industry. The most advanced scientific methods were imported. The Government did everything for the encouragement of the sugar industry. The effort has borne fruit. The output has steadily and rapidly increased. Last year as much as twelve million piculs of sugar was turned out. The capital invested in the industry now amounts to 175 million yen. There are eleven sugar companies in Taiwan, with sugar plants to the number of 48. At some plants old methods of production are still followed, but new methods are winning the day.

3. Tea.—Taiwan produces three kinds of tea, black, oolong and paochung. They are old products of Taiwan. The output of oolong tea amounts to eight million *kin*, valued at ¥5,500,000. It is largely exported to New York and Boston. Paochung tea is produced to the amount of nine million *kin*, valued at about seven million yen. Its principal market is in the Dutch Indies.

4. Fruit.—Bananas, pine-apples and oranges are the principal fruit products. The banana crop amounts to 220 million *kin*, valued at six million and a half yen.

B. Stock Breeding

Hog-raising is general in Taiwan, and buffaloes are raised both for farm and export purposes. Fowls, goats, and sheep are also raised by the farmers.

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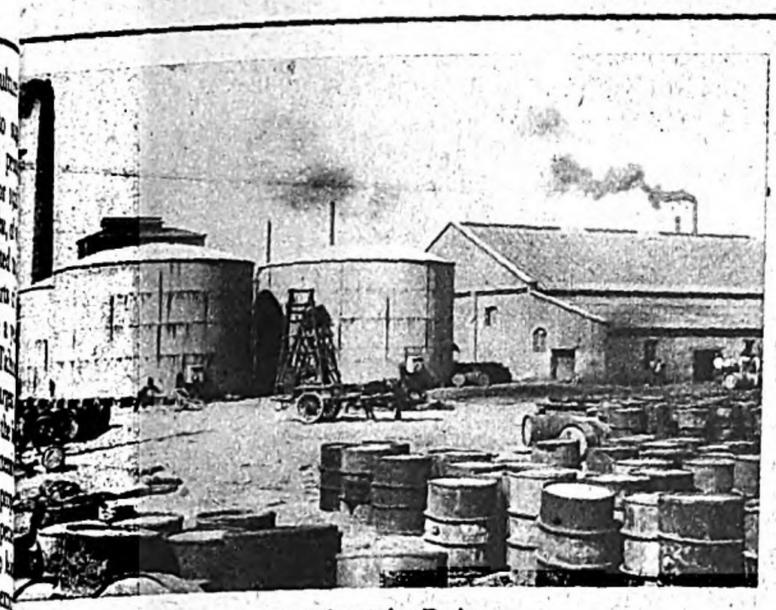


An Oil Plant in Dairen

There are about 1,600,000 hogs, and ut a million are butchered every r.

C. Forestry

orests cover about half the total a of the Island, and some are very and yearly production of timber unts to 2,300,000 *koku* (one *koku* bout ten cubic feet), of which a e more than half is from the Govern- t forests.

D. Fisheries

he seas round the Island being in fish, there is a great possibility the fishing industry, though it has yet made any great development. total marine output, inclusive of nufactured goods, amounts to 17 lion yen a year, and a further great ease is expected with the better loitation of the sea.

E. Mining

oal is produced abundantly in the thern part of Taiwan. There is a ht showing of oil in all parts of the nd, but oil has never been success- y exploited.

amphor, which is largely exported America, is the monopoly of the vernment of Taiwan, as is opium. ere are great possibilities for various ustries, for there are abundant supp- of raw material and cheap labour.

3. SOUTH MANCHURIA

A. Agriculture and Stock-Breeding

griculture is the most important ustry of the country, as is evidenced the fact that it exports Soya beans the amount of 63,450,000 Haikwan ls, tall millet worth 17,090,000 ikwan taels, millet worth 29,950,000 ikwan taels, bean cake worth 68,380, Haikwan taels, and bean oil worth 830,000 Haikwan taels.

tock breeding is still in a backward dition. According to the census 1927, there were 600,000 head of tle, 800,000 horses, 400,000 mules, ,000 donkeys, 500,000 sheep, and 00,000 hogs. There is room for at development in the industry, ich has a promising future.

B. Fishing and the Salt Industry

Fishing is largely carried on in the Yellow Sea and the Gulf of Pechili, enclosing the Peninsula of Liao-tung, and the catches amount to 6 million *kamme* (one *kamme* is equal to 3¾ kilograms), valued at 4 million yen a year. There is prospect of large increases by improved methods of fishing.

The water in the Yellow Sea and the Gulf of Pechili is rich in salt, and the coast of the Peninsula is well adapted to salt manufacturing. Along the coast there are extensive salt fields covering an area of 7,000 *chobu* (one *chobu* is about 2½ acres), and the yearly output of salt amounts to 410 million *kin*, of which 390 million *kin* is exported to Japan, Chosen, Karafuto and the Maritime Provinces.

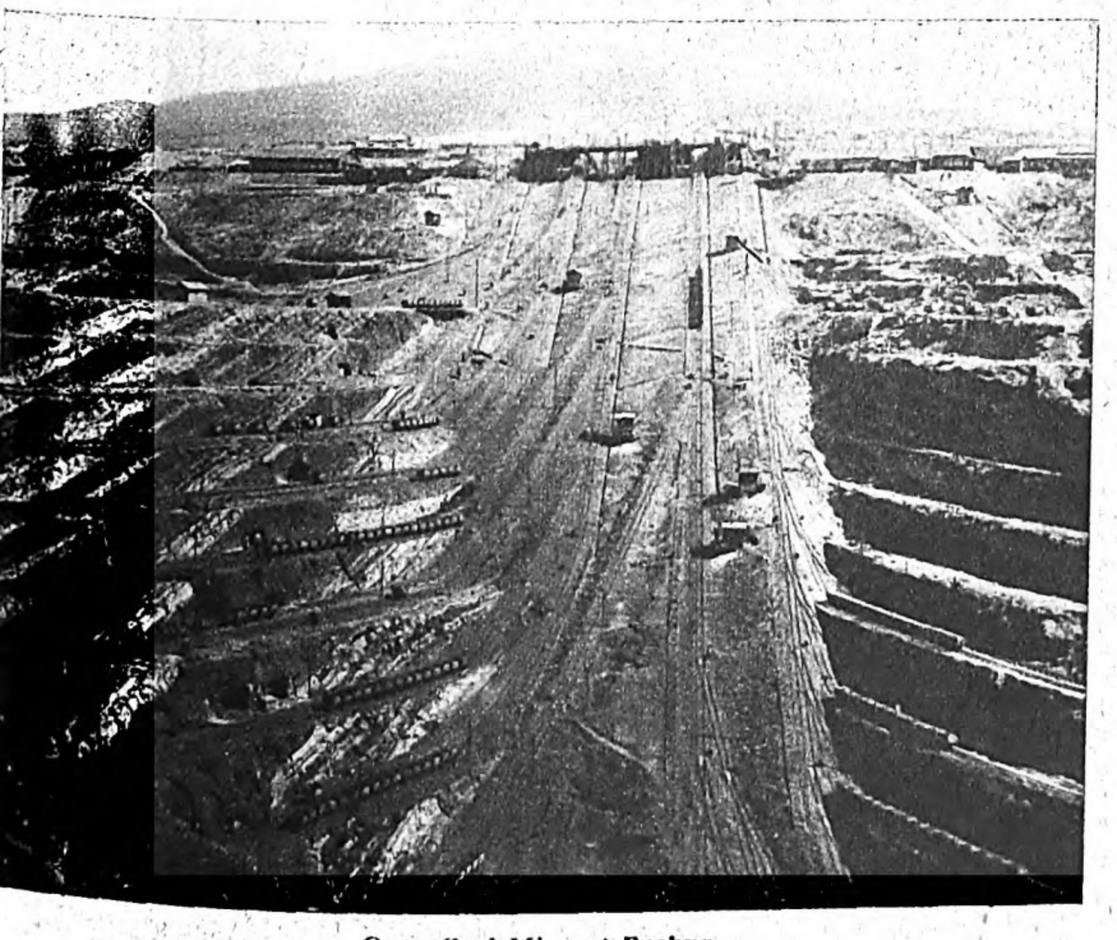
C. Mining

Coal and iron are the most important products of the mines of South Manchuria. Other products are gold, lead, shale, limestone, magnesite, etc. Iron is principally produced at the Anzantan Iron Foundry, worked by the South Manchuria Railway Co. and the Honkeiko Iron Foundry, a joint undertaking of Chinese and Japanese interests. From these foundries above 200,000 tons of iron is produced a year, and efforts are being made to increase the product to 400,000 tons a year. The production of coal is about 8 million tons a year, of which the greater part comes from the Bujun Coal Mine.

D. Manufacturing

Manchuria is provided with the essential conditions of industry; there is an abundant supply of agricultural products, coal, and cheap labour; nevertheless manufacturing is still in a backward condition. Before any development could be achieved, the province was visited by the economic reaction that followed the Great War, and the industry was stunted in its growth.

Because of lack of confidence from banks, and inadequate systems of marketing, no development has yet been made in this quarter. The only manufacturing industries now existing in South Manchuria are the bean oil, wheat flour, tussur silk and alcoholic drink, and machine industries, the latter of which is the undertaking of the South Manchuria Railway Co. According to the returns for 1928, there are 1,048 factories in the South Manchuria Railway Zone, capitalized at 348 million yen. The yearly output amounts to 245 million yen, of which Dairen's share is 101 millions, or 41 per cent. of the total.



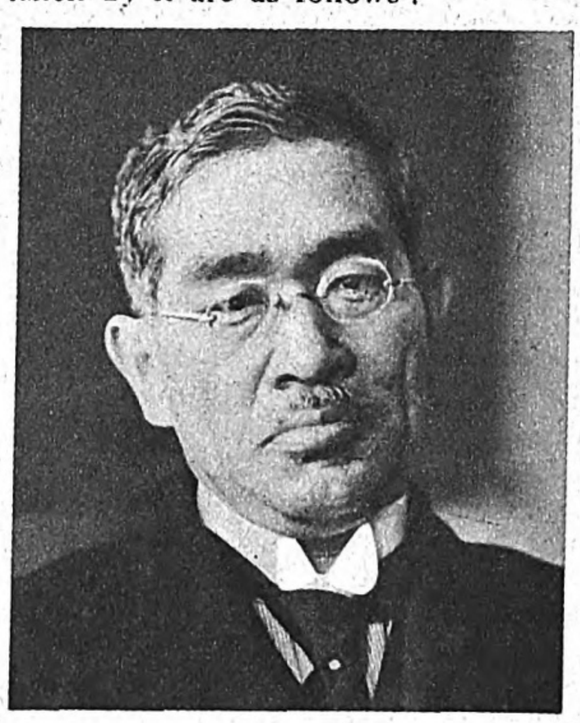
Open Coal Mine at Fushun

Creation of the Department of Overseas Affairs

THE Tanaka Cabinet created a new department of the cabinet in order to effect the extension and unification of official business connected with the administration of the colonial territories of Korea, Formosa and Saghalien, and the Kwantung Leased Territory, the South Seas Mandated Territory, etc., as well as to protect, encourage, and guide emigrants abroad, thus helping to develop overseas affairs. In doing this the Tanaka Cabinet simply followed the often asserted public demand for the establishment of such a department. The necessary bill, containing an estimate of ¥4,510,000, was introduced into the fifty-sixth session of the Diet and approved. It was then taken to the Privy Council for final approval, but some of the members of the Council protested against the Governor-General of Korea being placed under the new department. The Government acquiesced and excluded the Governor-General of Korea. The revised bill was sanctioned by the Privy Council on May 29, 1929.

The portfolio of the department was held ad interim by Premier Tanaka, who was succeeded by Mr. Genji Matsuda with the change of cabinets.

The organization of the new department and the business to be undertaken by it are as follows:



Mr. Genji Matsuda, Minister of Overseas Affairs

1. The Minister of Overseas Affairs unifies matters concerning the Korean and Formosan Governments, as well as the Kwantung, Saghalien, and South Seas Mandated Governments, and superintends the business of the South Manchuria Railway Co., and the Oriental Colonial Co. As regards emigration abroad, the department superintends the consulates through the Minister for Foreign Affairs.

2. The Department has one Section and three Bureaus, i.e., the Section for Korea, and Bureaus for Superintendence, Overseas Production, and Overseas Affairs. The Section for Korea controls the Government of Korea. The Bureau for Superintendence handles business connected with the Formosan, Kwantung, Saghalien and South Seas Governments, and the protection of settlers. The Bureau for Overseas Production handles business connected with the industry, communications, traffic, money market, taxes and monopolies, in the Formosan, Kwantung, Saghalien and South Seas Governments. The Bureau also handles business connected with the superintendence of the South Manchuria Railway and the Oriental Colonial Companies and business connected with the guidance and encouragement of undertakings abroad in spheres previously fixed by the Minister. The Bureau of Overseas Affairs deals with business connected with settlers and emigrants and all undertakings abroad with the exception of those falling under the other departments.

The fundamental policy of the new Department of Overseas Affairs consists of, (1) the peaceful development of colonies, the abolition of tariff obstacles and the development of natural resources, (2) the diffusion of education and other cultural enterprises in Korea and the encouragement of intermarriage between the Japanese and Koreans, toward the hastening of the assimilation of the Korean race. Particular undertakings for each of the colonies and the leased and mandated territories are as follows:

The Late Baron Giichi Tanaka, First Minister of Overseas Affairs

KOREA

First importance will be put on the development of industry and traffic by the improvement of harbours and opening of railways. With the creation of the new department the government will effect a turning point in the general policy of the administration in Korea, so that more positive efforts will be made toward harmonisation between Japanese and Koreans.

FORMOSA

The improvement of industry will claim the first attention of the authorities. Next a connection between Formosa and South China, which is situated opposite the Island, will be established. This measure will be taken because great inconvenience has been caused by the fact that there are in Formosa subjects who are registered in the Island while living along the coast of South China.

SAGHALIEN

The perfection of the forestry policy will be effected first of all, because the forest industry is the most important industry in the Island. Next the establishment of smooth relations between the Japanese and the Russians, with the islands as the centre, will be effected.

THE KWANTUNG LEASED TERRITORY

The food question in the territory, especially the importation of rice, salt and caustic soda, will be considered.

THE SOUTH SEAS MANDATED TERRITORY

Unification will be made in the importation of sugar, lime, etc.

EMIGRATION AND OVERSEAS COLONISATION

Spiritual as well as scientific training will be given to emigrants. Special organs will be established for the investigation of conditions in territories of emigration. As a first step officials will be despatched abroad for inspection.

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The Flour-Milling Industry

APAN first embarked upon the flour-milling industry in those years of Meiji during which she began enter into closer communication ith foreign countries. September, 97, saw the establishment of the first panese milling company, the Nippon ifun, which started operations in a all plant with a capacity of 200 rrels. The machinery installed in it d been disposed of by the govern-ent. Later the industry went forward a decidedly quickened pace, with e Russo-Japanese War and the orld War acting as incentives. The eld of flour for all Japan was only 300 barrels in 1905, which was in-reased to 8,700 barrels in 1911, 20,000 arrels in 1913 and 42,479 barrels in 928. The estimate for this year is 6,000 barrels, as the two new mills of e Nisshin Seifun and the Nippon eifun are about to be completed. The xtent of the increase in the yearly out-ut of flour during the last five years shown in the following figures :

In 1924	.....	32,676 barrels
In 1925	.....	36,482
In 1926	.....	38,349
In 1927	.....	36,701
In 1928	.....	42,479

This brief history of development, owever, is also a history of the progress f the centralization of capital and onopoly in the industry. The merger f the Meiji Seifun and the Teikoku eifun into the Nippon Seifun was ffected after the Russo-Japanese War, nd that of the Dai-Nippon Seifun and he Nisshin Seifun into the Tatebayashi ojo immediately followed it, the name f the Nisshin Seifun, one of the three ompanies merged, being adopted for he new company. Then after the Great War had ended, a general amalgamation came about again in the industry. Three minor concerns, the Toyo, the Tohoku and the Toa, were amalgamated into the Nippon Seifun ; and meantime, the Ryomo, the Jomo, the Sanuki and the Kyushu were either united with or bought up by the Nisshin Seifun. At present nearly the whole industry is divided up between the two big companies, the Nippon Seifun and the Nisshin Seifun, which are sharp competitors.

The extent of the sway of these two interests in the milling industry is shown in the following table :

	Yearly Capacity	Capital
The Nisshin Seifun	20,100 barrels	¥12,330,000
The Nippon Seifun	19,600	3,937,000
The 27 Other Cos.	7,920	14,190,000

From these figures, it is seen that 42% and 41% of the yearly capacity are possessed by the Nisshin Seifun and the Nippon Seifun respectively, while only 17% is the share of the 27 remaining companies combined. As for capital, these two big companies represent 53.5% of the whole figure, though one of them, the Nippon Seifun, has effected an extensive reduction in its capital.

It is self-evident that the centralization and monopolization of enterprises necessarily results in opportunities for higher profits. This has been true in the flour-milling industry of Japan, in which there have been a number of cases of price agreement and limitation of operation with increasing centralization of enterprises. But free competition has been brought back into the industry since May, 1928, when an agreement on limitation of operation was removed.

This has great significance. The monopolist millers, under an agreement on operation and prices, displayed no interest in improving the industry, but were completely occupied with the raising of prices for their manufactures. As a result, the new prices were accompanied by a great decrease in demand ; while, on the other hand, the millers lost chances for general improvement in their enterprises and finally found themselves powerless to meet foreign competition. This proved very serious for them, and they came up against the necessity of abolishing their agreements and enhancing their capacity to the level of their foreign rivals even at the cost of temporary sacrifices. Such being the case, the return of free competition must of necessity mean a new start for them.

Let us see now what new features have appeared in the milling industry since the return of free competition. They are the rationalization of the industry and more regular and extensive exportation abroad. The first of the phases of the rationalization is seen in the new location of mills. The Japanese millers used to choose sites for their mills in the interior of the country, for they did not depend upon imported wheat, but home products. But as the industry developed, it became necessary to use foreign wheat very largely. And then the inland location of the mills, it was found, placed the industry at a disadvantage in the importation of raw materials and exportation of their manufactured products. Therefore it is now a rule for the millers to construct their mills near sea-ports, where there are ready facilities for shipment and importation.

The second phase of the rationalization is the employment of up-to-date machinery. Let us take for instance the new mill of the Nisshin Seifun at Tsurumi, which, when completed, will have a capacity of 7,000 barrels a year, or 30,000 bags (of about 133 pounds) a day. The loading of raw materials will be done at the rate of 300 tons an hour by means of vacuum contrivances requiring no human assistance. For the storage of wheat, there will be highly developed tanks of cheap cost and high capacity, capable of storing over 42,000 tons. Automatic carriers will be used for moving the wheat in and out of storage, and for loading flour. It is said that 112,000 bags can be loaded from storage during one day and night by these automatic carriers.

The effects of the rationalization have already taken shape in the extensive reduction of labour, thereby lowering the cost of production. The figures below show the cost of production in the case of the Nisshin Seifun in recent years :

		Output	Cost per Bag
1925	Second Half	5,480,000 bags	¥0.532
1926	First Half..	5,840,000	0.517
	Second Half	6,250,000	0.484
1927	First Half ..	6,490,000	0.415
	Second Half	7,540,000	0.413

The cheap cost of production resulting from rationalization favoured the advance of the export trade in Japanese flour. Formerly it went abroad irregularly and in small quantities, being consumed mostly at home. But recently there have developed prospects of a growing trade. There were registered for export 3,379,000 bags in 1927, and 6,405,000 bags in 1928, and the estimate for this year is 11,000,000 bags or more.

The Sulphate of Ammonia Industry

N the financial year of 1928 the Department of Agriculture and Forestry dvocated a number of important neasures to be undertaken by the State, among which was the self-upply of fertilizers. This measure imed not so much at checking the mportation of fertilizers, which reaches n enormous amount every year, as at he reduction of the price of fertilizers, o that they might be supplied cheaply o all farm districts. Under the circumstances the government, while advocating the self-supply of fertilizers, established almost no plan for checking the import of foreign fertilizers. They even planned a government monopoly of the import trade of sulphate of ammonia and other fertilizers and also attempted to regulate the fertilizer market by controlling distribution.

The government plan, however, was not introduced into the Diet, partly because of the opposition of public opinion, and partly for political reasons. However, it stimulated the sulphate of ammonia industry in Japan, and in 1928 an unprecedented increase of output was planned. The Electro-Chemical Industry Co. planned an output of 200,000 tons during 1928. The Toshin Electric Co., with the co-operation of the Daido Fertilizer Co. and the Tokyo Electric Light Co., established the Showa Fertilizer Co. with a capital of ¥10,000,000. The company will produce sulphate of ammonia to the amount of 200,000 tons annually from 1929, and when the two additional factories which are being built are completed, the output will be increased to 500,000 tons. The South Manchuria Railway Co. planned the manufacture of sulphate of ammonia by the U. D. method. The Mitsui Mining is going to produce 180,000 tons by the Claude method, while the Chosen Nitrogen Co. produces 300,000 tons by the Casale method. Besides the above, the Hoku-Etsu and Shin-Etsu Electric Companies have planned an increase of output. At the Yawata Iron Works, which have hitherto been manufacturing sulphate of ammonia to the amount of 12,000 tons a year as a subsidiary enterprise, they have invented a method by which sulphate of ammonia amounting to eighteen per cent. of the coal consumed in the manufacture of iron can be made.

The amount can be increased to seventy-five per cent. when the Works use their whole equipment.

The plans of various companies for an increase in their output of sulphate of ammonia have deep significance when considered in connection with the government's encouragement of the self-supply of fertilizers. But this is not the only factor in establishing the plan for the increase of output by private companies. These companies, which have large amounts of capital invested, naturally wish to gain the maximum amount of profit through subsidiary enterprises. Thus the increase of output planned by various companies has a meaning opposed to the reduction of price as planned by the government. This is proved by the fact that some companies were ready to give up a part of their plans, fearing a reduction of price with the increase of output.

The following table shows the output of sulphate of ammonia by the various manufacturing companies :

	1927 ton	1928 ton
The Electro-Chemical	85,000	100,000
The Japan Nitrogen..	80,000	100,000
The Hoku-Etsu Hydro-Electric	4,500	6,000
The Daido Fertilizer	6,000	7,000
The Dai-Ichi Nitrogen	4,500	6,000
The Yawata Iron Works	12,000	12,000
The Mitsui Mining..	2,000	2,000
The Kamaishi Mining	1,200	1,200
The Nihon Iron Works	2,400	3,000
The Dai Nippon Artificial Fertilizer	—	10,000
The Shin-Etsu Nitrogen	—	6,000
The Hoku-Etsu Electro-Chemical	—	1,000
The Shin-Etsu Electric Power	—	4,000
The Kenjiho	1,200	1,200
The Honkeiko	1,000	1,000
The South Manchuria Railway	8,000	10,000
Others	10,000	10,000
Total	270,000	280,400

The following returns show the import of sulphate of ammonia :

From	1928 Quantity*	1928 Value†	1927 Quantity	1927 Value
Germany ..	2,485,909	18,844	2,275,201	17,822
Great Britain	1,633,577	12,799	1,009,732	8,157
U.S.A.	473,602	3,477	979,005	5,189
Others.	148,853	1,182	202,970	1,580
Total .	4,741,341	36,303	4,166,908	32,750

* unit, one hundred kin
† unit, one thousand yen

According to the above returns, during 1928 Japan produced sulphate of ammonia to the amount of 280,000 tons and imported 260,000 tons valued at ¥36,000,000. The fact that home industry had only supplied one half of the domestic demand, which is ever increasing as the following table shows, accounts for the plans established by the various companies for increase of output.

The demand for sulphate of ammonia in Japan has been as follows :

	ton		ton
1920....	149,750	1924....	26,513
1921....	171,196	1925....	331,398
1922....	183,349	1926....	438,862
1923....	247,422	1927....	525,574

If the plans for the increase of output are carried out continuously, the relation between demand and supply will change as follows :

Year	Output	Consumption	Balance
	(Unit, one thousand tons)		
1929	400	690	290
1930	713	790	77
1931	867	900	33
1932	977	1,000	23

It will be seen that at the end of 1932 the deficit of supply will be reduced to 23,000 tons. The increase of output by the Japanese companies will inevitably cause competition with foreign companies, especially with the I.G. Co. of Germany, which has been exporting a large amounts of the commodity to Japan. The fate of the Japanese sulphate of ammonia industry will depend upon the result of this competition. According to the latest report, the Japanese companies will revise their plans more or less for reasons given above. The following table for future output is based on a general forecast made in industrial circles :

	1930 ton	1935 ton
The Nippon Nitrogen	110,000	110,000
The Electro-Chemical	80,000	135,000
The Dai-Ichi Nitrogen	20,000	70,000
The Daido Fertilizer..	9,000	25,000
The Hoku-Etsu Hydro-Electric	6,500	9,000
The Mitsui Mining ..	2,300	3,000
The Yawata Iron Works	12,000	20,000
The Dai Nippon Artificial Fertilizer	50,000	50,000
The Oriental Nitrogen	1,800	2,000
The Shin-Etsu Nitrogen	35,000	40,000
The Showa Fertilizer	40,000	80,000
The Sumitomo Fertilizer	30,000	100,000
The Japan Steel Manufacturing	3,500	4,000
The Kamaishi Mining	1,500	1,800
The Kanto Hydro-Electric	—	30,000
Various gas companies	12,100	18,000
(The above companies are in Japan proper) Total	413,800	697,800
The Chosen Nitrogen	180,000	270,000
The Mitsubishi Iron Works	2,000	3,000
(The above companies are in Korea) Total	182,000	273,000
The South Manchuria Gas	2,000	2,500
The Anshan Iron Works	80,000	80,000
The Bushun Coal Mine	20,000	20,000
Total	102,000	102,500
(The above enterprises belong to the South Manchuria Railway Company)		
Grand Total	697,800	1,073,300

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Mining

It is the earth that furnishes us with the necessities of life, through riculture, forestry, fishing and stock eeding, and elevates the condition of r living through mining. We can e a primitive life with the first three, t it is mining that enables us to live civilized life. The feature of our esent civilization is the development the use of metals and consumption fuels. Iron and other heavy metals e playing a very important role in all rts of productive industries. Coal d oil supply the motive power for dustry. It is natural, therefore, that ining, which produces such important etals, fuels, and useful stones, should cupy a prominent position among the dustries.

The nature and quantity of buried inerals are the first factors for decid- g the prosperity and en the fate of a coun- y. A country which oduces great varieties minerals in great antities is already ualified to be a victor the world economic ontest.

Japan is contracted in ea, and its strata con- ins poor deposits of inerals. Her mineral oducts are very limit- d. In none of the portant minerals does er production excel thers. In copper she olds the third place in he world, and still her oduction is uncom- arably smaller than hat of the other two. hough greatly limited n the variety of her inerals and quantity f production, Japan is aking steady develop- ent in the mining dustry. During 1928 here was an all round crease of production, nd the total production mounted to 378 and a alf million yen, being an crease of a million yen over the eceding year. We give below the oduction of some of the more im- portant minerals for the last five years. The following figures are based on the eturns of the Department of Com- erce and Industry :

MINERAL PRODUCTS

Gold

		Quantity Ounces	Value Yen
1924	Japan Proper	268,476	10,599,262
	Colonies	118,673	5,357,364
1925	Japan Proper	272,113	13,154,961
	Colonies	158,872	6,463,177
1926	Japan Proper	292,534	12,767,161
	Colonies	239,694	8,331,755
1927	Japan Proper	308,881	13,170,699
	Colonies	196,113	6,755,827
1928	Japan Proper	333,851	14,676,541
	Colonies	—	—

Silver

		Quantity Ounces	Value Yen
1924	Japan Proper	3,542,435	5,700,205
	Colonies	65,672	93,522
1925	Japan Proper	4,057,383	6,823,629
	Colonies	62,009	117,779
1926	Japan Proper	4,477,206	6,023,840
	Colonies	64,757	82,882
1927	Japan Proper	4,531,689	5,452,844
	Colonies	69,523	74,523
1928	Japan Proper	5,145,044	6,516,019
	Colonies	—	—

Copper

		Quantity Kilograms	Value Yen
1924	Japan Proper	63,056	48,541,691
	Colonies	1,154	130,672
1925	Japan Proper	66,487	53,467,966
	Colonies	721	355,325
1926	Japan Proper	67,365	50,766,711
	Colonies	1,511	769,159
1927	Japan Proper	66,571	47,888,858
	Colonies	1,582	1,062,237
1928	Japan Proper	68,233	55,271,862
	Colonies	—	—

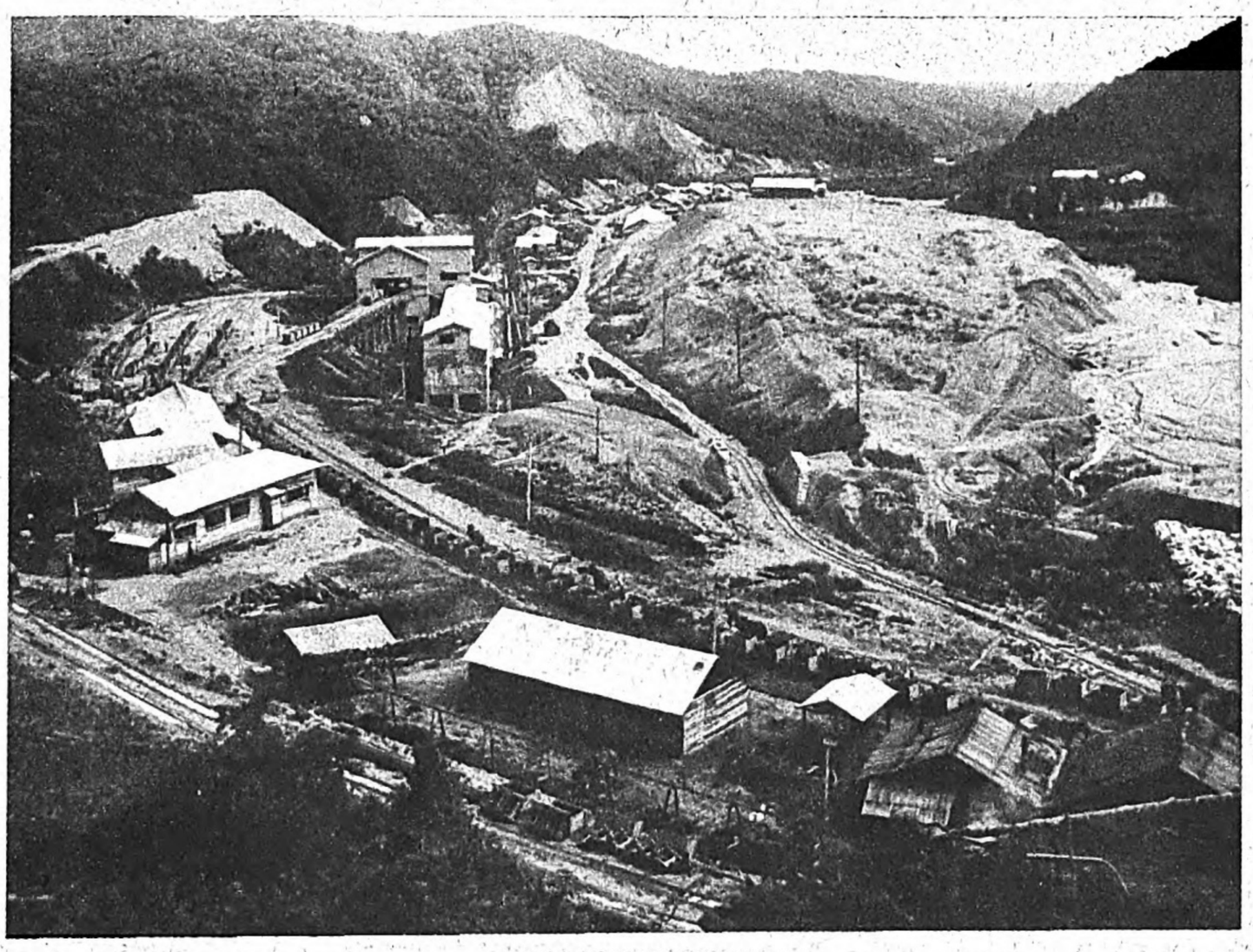
Pig Iron

		Quantity Kilograms	Value Yen
1924	Japan Proper	45,664	3,901,249
	Colonies	99,795	5,565,710
1925	Japan Proper	34,556	2,904,599
	Colonies	99,160	5,386,489
1926	Japan Proper	57,938	3,618,069
	Colonies	115,036	5,958,940
1927	Japan Proper	55,624	4,255,902
	Colonies	129,022	6,523,350
1928	Japan Proper	57,015	4,771,751
	Colonies	—	—

Iron and Steel

(Products of Government Foundries excluded)

		Quantity Kilograms	Value Yen
1924	Japan Proper	27,885	2,829,871
	Colonies	—	—
1925	Japan Proper	31,512	2,993,602
	Colonies	—	—
1926	Japan Proper	46,707	4,110,225
	Colonies	—	—
1927	Japan Proper	49,511	3,943,551
	Colonies	—	—
1928	Japan Proper	10,802	5,148,671
	Colonies	—	—



Ashio Copper Mine

Lead

		Quantity Kilograms	Value Yen
1924	Japan Proper	2,941	969,862
	Colonies	—	—
1925	Japan Proper	3,334	1,370,006
	Colonies	485	257,122
1926	Japan Proper	3,610	1,238,440
	Colonies	1,958	765,985
1927	Japan Proper	3,394	904,729
	Colonies	824	286,266
1928	Japan Proper	3,653	847,552
	Colonies	—	—

Zinc

		Quantity Kilograms	Value Yen
1924	Japan Proper	14,069	5,554,640
	Colonies	—	—
1925	Japan Proper	16,950	7,990,468
	Colonies	—	—
1926	Japan Proper	16,972	7,162,757
	Colonies	—	—
1927	Japan Proper	17,498	6,157,601
	Colonies	—	—
1928	Japan Proper	19,129	6,339,605
	Colonies	—	—

Coal

		Quantity French Tons	Value Yen
1924	Japan Proper	30,110,826	241,614,059
	Colonies	2,102,526	14,606,713
1925	Japan Proper	31,459,415	236,828,364
	Colonies	2,579,434	17,547,293
1926	Japan Proper	31,426,549	231,042,269
	Colonies	2,753,226	18,291,612
1927	Japan Proper	33,530,607	257,280,705
	Colonies	2,923,881	12,219,488
1928	Japan Proper	33,860,181	254,516,131
	Colonies	—	—

Oil

		Quantity Barrels	Value Yen
1924	Japan Proper	1,793,161	19,455,114
	Colonies	22,505	283,856
1925	Japan Proper	1,857,854	16,835,930
	Colonies	23,869	278,368
1926	Japan Proper	1,697,903	14,971,914
	Colonies	87,171	1,103,472
1927	Japan Proper	1,645,037	12,466,484
	Colonies	143,573	1,936,379
1928	Japan Proper	1,838,170	12,945,601
	Colonies	—	—

According to the returns for 1927, there were 357 mining companies in Japan proper, and 48 in the colonies, capitalized at ¥669,260,000 and ¥118,297,000 respectively. Profits during the year in Japan proper averaged only 5.83 per cent. on the capital invested.

Turning to conditions of employment of miners, as at the end of June, 1927, we find that the total number of labourers employed at mines in Japan proper was 295,629 (43,185 in colonies) ; of the number 229,550 were male and 66,079 female. The following table shows the number of labourers employed in mines, classified according toages :

NUMBER OF MINE LABOURERS
Classified According to Ages and Kinds of Mines

	Under 14	Under 15	Under 20	Over 20
Mineral Mines	61	291	5,340	39,964
Coal Mines	115	1,071	32,240	205,740
Oil Fields	—	4	507	5,378
Others	—	8	479	4,430
Total	176	1,375	38,566	255,512

The wages earned by these mine labourers averaged as follows in the first half of 1927 :

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES

Workers at	Male	Female	Average of Male and Female
	Yen	Yen	Yen
Mineral Mines	1.90	.71	1.78
Coal Mines	1.85	1.34	1.76
Oil Fields	1.86	.80	1.80
Others	2.06	.84	1.93
Average	1.87	1.25	1.77

The Oil Industry

Petroleum Oil and Naphtha

AT the end of 1928 there were in Japan 21 oil companies, whose nominal capitals combined were ¥159,450,000 and whose prospecting and mining areas amounted to 1,946 fields, reaching in all 969,162,000 *tsubo* or a little more than 791,799 acres. The yield of crude oil for the twelve months of that year amounted to 1,718,975 koku, or 68,235,308 gallons, a gain of 5,658,798 gallons over the preceding year. Table I shows the crude oil outputs for Japan proper and Formosa for the nine years up to 1928.

With such a small yearly output of oil as is shown above, Japan cannot as yet satisfy her own demand, which is ever growing especially for naphtha, heavy oil and machine oil, due to the increasing number of her motor ships, airplanes and motor cars and also to an increasing use of oil in factories and on farms. In 1928 Japan consumed 32,244,000 cases of oil (1 case contains 10 gallons), or 6,448,000 koku, an increase of 60% over 1924, or an amount more than double the figure for 1919. Table II shows the amounts of consumption for the last four years, arranged as to the kinds of oil.

As referred to above, Japan needs much foreign oil and imports a tremendous quantity every year. In 1928 she took during the year imports of crude oil, heavy oil, naphtha, machine oil and kerosene oil amounting to 9,852,000 koku, or 391,124,400 gallons. A part of this was imported for the use of the Imperial Navy, and the remainder by private interests. The latter took different kinds of oil as follows : 11,354,000 cases of crude oil for refining, 9,232,000 cases of heavy oil and substitutes for light oil, 4,390,000 cases of naphtha, and 2,954,000 cases of kerosene oil These figures are all on the increase. Table III shows how much of the yearly consumption of oil is produced at home and how much comes from abroad.

Table I

	Japan Proper	Formosa	Total
1920	2,592,707 koku	17,577 koku	2,610,284 koku
1921	1,961,068	6,625	1,967,693
1922	1,799,096	11,512	1,810,608
1923	1,576,353	13,570	1,589,923
1924	1,576,212	19,822	1,589,034
1925	1,637,453	23,032	1,660,485
1926	1,496,477	80,333	1,576,810
1927	1,449,883	126,513	1,576,436
1928	1,619,017	99,958	1,718,975

(1 koku equals 39.703 gallons)

Table II

	1925	1926	1927	1928
Naphtha	3,682,000 cases	4,992,000 cases	6,246,000 cases	8,320,000 cases
Kerosene Oil	3,779,000	3,443,000	3,169,000	3,825,000
Light Oil	4,839,000	5,347,000	4,860,000	5,438,000
Heavy Oil	5,005,000	5,421,000	8,515,000	9,859,000
Machine Oil	3,231,000	3,525,000	4,886,000	4,804,000
Total	20,538,000	22,727,000	27,675,000	32,244,000

Table III

	1925	1926	1927	1928
Home Products	6,048,000 cases	6,224,000 cases	6,518,000 cases	6,775,000 cases
Foreign Crude Oil Refined in Japan	5,721,000	6,564,000	6,926,000	8,563,000
Foreign Refined Oil	9,670,000	11,207,000	15,300,000	17,988,000
Exported	901,000	1,268,000	1,069,000	1,083,000
ActuallyConsumed	20,538,000	22,727,000	27,675,000	32,244,000

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The Capital Invested in Various Businesses in Japan

Has Increased Six Fold Since the Year Before the War

As a consequence of the world war, Japan's economic and financial situation has seen an epoch-making change. The study of the movement of capital invested in various businesses makes it necessary to look back to the year 1914 in the pre-war period. With the effect of the then government policy of financial retrenchment and deflation of notes, there was a fall in prices and a slump in the markets, notably the stock market, when all of sudden, at the end of the year, the world war broke out, resulting in great disturbances in financial circles at home and abroad.

The capital invested in business then totaled no more than ¥250,000,000 (see Table 1.). But in the year 1915 the consequences of the war were happier, for it brought a great decrease of imports from abroad on the one hand and an avalanche of orders for munitions on the other. Moreover, the economic activities of European States were checked, resulting in an unexpected development of our export trade through the acquisition of new commercial outlets; and thus the year 1915 saw a record-making excess of exports amounting to ¥170,000,000.

This favorable change in the financial world of Japan was followed by the increase of capital invested in business, which exceeded ¥500,000,000, or double the capital invested in the previous year. With the continuance of the European war, the belligerent Powers devoted their whole strength to the winning of their cause and had no time to look after economic development, which was consequently left in a state of stagnancy. And the economic influence which they had long before established in the Orient gave away gradually before our economic development.

Furthermore, due to the world-wide dearth of vessels, Japan's shipping business and other industries enjoyed great prosperity. The yearly investment in 1916 and 1917 amounted respectively to ¥1,100,000,000 and ¥2,000,000,000.

Russia's separate peace with Germany at the end of 1917 had an unfavorable influence on the economic world of Japan, and in 1918 the excessive rise of prices brought on mass riots in Kyoto, Osaka and Kobe. The Bank of Japan at last raised its rates of discount as a means of contracting the currency and bankers everywhere assumed a cautious attitude. These moves combined to give a pause to the ever increasing tendency to invest in business. The capital invested in 1918 amounted to only ¥3,200,000,000. Then in 1919 the figures indicate only a 30 per cent. increase in capital as compared with the previous year. This relapse is due to the fact that in 1919, with the conclusion of the Peace Treaty, Japanese financial circles began to foresee their future rather unfavorably, resulting in a relapse in trade and hesitation to extend credit. As a result, the demand for capital was greatly checked in the first half of 1919. In 1920, after 4 long years of the world-wide conflagration, peace came at last, and there were many who foresaw the beginning of the golden age of world economic and financial conditions; they were caught by a fever for extension, so much so that in less than the first 3 months of 1920 the capital invested in commerce, industry and public utilities aggregated ¥4,450,000,000. This amazing growth was followed in March, 1920 by an equally serious setback, which dislocated all business, though the total investment of this year reached the record amount of ¥6,670,000,000, largely due to the frantic expansion of the first three months, during which the sum invested reached ¥4,500,000,000. These figures show an increase of twenty-six and a half times as compared with the investment in the pre-war year of 1914. After 1920 the coming of an economic crisis was more than ever evident, every year seeing the dissolution of companies and reduction of capital. The total investment for 1921 decreased to ¥3,000,000 in 1921 and to ¥1,700,000 in 1922. In 1923 the financial situation recovered a little and the reduction of capital was stopped at ¥1,500,000, which was 10 per cent. of the reduction of the previous year.

The dark shadow cast over the financial world after the world war was still to be removed and some signs of recovery were seen faintly on the horizon, when suddenly the disastrous earthquake of September, 1923, visited Tokyo and Yokohama, the centre of our political and economic realm, nipping abruptly in the bud any hope of immediate recovery. The disastrous consequences of the quake were great, and in 1924 the investment of capital was only ¥940,000,000, which shows a reduction of more than one-third. The next year, 1925, everywhere there were signs of gradual recovery from the blow of the quake and the financial situation became more secure.

At the same time, there was a sudden growth of demand for materials necessitated by the reconstruction and rehabilitation of the devastated districts. Thus the capital invested in this year aggregated ¥1,300,000,000, indicating an increase of 30 per cent. over the previous year. In 1926, the dullness of the money market brought with it the so-called "middle boom," which caused an increase of investment of capital which gave an aggregate of ¥1,800,000,000.

Early in 1927, in the months of March and April, there occurred an unprecedented monetary panic, caused by the failure of the Government in its preparations for the removal of the gold embargo. Many banks, led by the Bank of Taiwan and the Fifteenth Bank, were compelled to liquidate their business.

Notwithstanding the very severe curtailment of credit in 1927, the capital invested in business promotion or expansion during the year amounted to ¥1,500,000,000, showing a decrease of a little less than 20 per cent. And the year 1928 registered about the same figure.

As the people of Japan have complained for a long time of the post-war depression and economic activities are already curtailed to the extreme, it can be taken for granted that the figures above indicate the bottom. Accordingly it may be said that, as far as capital invested is concerned, the financial condition of Japan, since the war-boom period, has developed to a degree six times greater than that of pre-war times.

In the primitive stage of the economic world, the major part of the capital for extension of business consists generally of increases of capital or collection of payment for new shares. In other words, it may be called the period of promotion by shares subscription. But with the greater extension of business, subscription on shares becomes insufficient for the needs. Some people do not wish to invest their still unengaged capital in such uncertain means of revenue as stocks. These people prefer lending their money for projects rather than placing it in stocks. Thus begins the system of loans. But the system of private loans also falls short of satisfying the ever growing needs for greater capital. In consequence, the loan system is compelled to advance so as to meet the new condition, and thus the system of debentures is brought forth. Thanks to their security as investments, the offering of debentures assures subscription from a very large circle, the more so when, as in these days, many reliable banks and stock dealers guarantee them.

As seen by Table 1 (column, capital for extension), what I have just explained holds literally good in our country. Despite the dullness of business, the capital invested in 1914 surpasses more than three times the private loans and debentures, the larger part of the capital being collected by subscription on shares. But this period of promotion by subscription on shares lasted no longer; and later, though the percentage of debentures as against the capital invested in business fluctuated not a little, in general the ratio of the debentures to the capital went up. And in 1915 the debentures surpassed the capital. During the world war, there was a feverish rise in the stock market owing to the abnormal boom and the capital far exceeded the debentures. But with the war over, since 1920 the fall of the fever for stocks has been accompanied by an increase of debentures. In 1924 capital and debentures arrived at about the same amount and the next year, the latter amounted to one-half more than the former. In particular, the year 1928 saw debentures reach double the amount of capital invested through shares. This was due first to the cautious attitude toward stocks taken by investors, who were made uneasy by the long slump and by the news of the coming removal of the gold embargo, and secondly to the convenience of floating debentures for the extension of business, as the rate of interest was very low at that time.

Now let us examine Table 2, and consider the various businesses which have enjoyed a striking growth. There comes first, in order of prosperity, the electric industry and railways and tramways. The capital invested for the extension of each of these public service corporations amounts to nearly ¥300,000,000, far surpassing that invested in other businesses. In these days, carriage by automobile has made such progress that the local railways have been completely swept away from the possibility of any future development. But there is room still left for further extension of electric railway in the suburbs of big cities.

As for the electric industry, it suffers actually from an excess of power. The investment of capital in this industry will probably come to a pause in the future. After these enterprises comes the banking business, with a capital of a little more than ¥250,000,000; and next miscellaneous industries with a capital of ¥150,000,000 and the maritime transportation business with a capital of ¥10,000,000.

The dissolution of companies, reduction of capital and the reimbursement of debentures effectuated during 1928 amounted in all to about ¥1,350,000,000, of which ¥434,000,000 (paid-up capital) was for the dissolution, ¥203,000,000 for reduction and ¥706,000,000 for reimbursement.

CAPITAL INVESTED IN BANKS AND COMPANIES SINCE 1914

(In thousands of yen)

Year	Capital for new enterprises	Capital for extension: Capital	Capital for extension: Debentures & loans	Total
1914	114,535	102,977	33,285	250,797
1915	177,443	153,957	169,815	501,215
1916	611,357	397,862	91,394	1,100,613
1917	1,217,164	780,336	73,775	2,071,275
1918	2,020,825	958,936	224,945	3,204,706
1919	2,766,440	1,370,729	164,370	4,301,539
1920	4,071,225	2,240,438	359,540	6,671,203
1921	1,497,701	1,143,497	445,320	3,086,518
1922	1,047,273	390,897	317,310	1,755,480
1923	652,972	410,560	423,973	1,487,505
1924	338,129	331,595	270,536	940,260
1925	622,661	274,851	422,278	1,319,790
1926	685,385	696,751	416,060	1,798,196
1927	579,188	397,651	552,684	1,529,523
1928	521,091	306,640	693,634	1,521,364
1929	341,096	174,662	276,520	792,279

N.B.—The figures for 1929 are for the upper half of the year.

INVESTMENT OF CAPITAL FOR THE CREATION OR EXTENSION OF BUSINESSES IN 1928 CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO KINDS OF BUSINESS

(In thousands of yen)

Kind of business	Capital for new business	Capital for extension: Capital	Capital for extension: Debentures & loans	Total
Banking ..	—	24,607	230,814	255,421
Trust & money lending	4,550	1,268	2,000	7,818
Railways & tramways	119,500	89,320	85,700	294,520
Maritime transportation.	38,326	7,000	60,250	105,576
Assurance.	1,000	—	—	1,000
Warehousing.....	2,450	1,000	—	3,450
Marine products.	2,150	—	5,000	7,150
Agriculture, forestry & land	31,890	1,300	4,000	37,190
Mining ..	20,800	250	10,000	31,050
Electricity.	41,300	44,720	211,400	297,420
Gas	5,800	2,000	5,450	13,250
Textiles ..	24,100	3,500	11,500	39,100
Foodstuffs	16,275	46,000	7,250	69,525
Mechanical & metal..	16,530	9,050	20,000	45,580
Miscellaneous....	66,680	56,362	32,770	155,812
Trade	77,480	9,794	1,500	88,774
Miscellaneous....	52,260	10,470	6,000	68,730

(Continued from Page 131)

GOVERNMENT FINANCE

Seen from the angle of onlookers, the question would appear to be one of political morality rather than a legal one. From the political point of view it would appear out of order to alter arbitrarily what has been decided upon by the Diet; on the other hand, the view may be taken that it is quite proper that a new government should alter what has been decided upon by its predecessor, if it considers it inappropriate. In fact the general public does not find fault with the working budget, but on the contrary, heartily welcomes it as well suited to the present financial condition of the country.

Thus the only budget of the Tanaka Government that ever passed the Diet has failed to bear fruit, and after two years of administration the Tanaka Government has left poor record of achievement. The working budget framed by the new ministry is applauded in all quarters as one most wisely adopted and suited to the situation.

The undertakings planned by the former government to be carried out by public loans, which had not yet been begun, have all been abandoned by the new ministry, and the issue of loans for them has been prevented, and moreover the Hamaguchi Government has shown a determination to reduce future issues of loans as much as possible. This negative policy of the Hamaguchi Government is very favourably received by the public and is believed to promise well for the solution of the great problem of the removal of the gold embargo. It has also had a good influence on the public. Reduction of expenses and general economy has now become the order of the day.

The government is practising thorough-going economy. The budget for the coming fiscal year will show further economy and retrenchment, and preparations for the removal of the gold embargo will be perfected.

Below are given the items of the working budget for the present year:

GENERAL ACCOUNT

(In thousands of yen)

		Percentage
Imperial Household Allowance	4,500	0.3
Service on National Loans	282,382	16.8
Pensions	143,115	8.5
Administrative Expenses.....	646,624	38.5
Subsidies	108,764	6.5
Military & Naval Expenses.....	481,673	28.6
Treasury Reserves	14,000	0.8
Total	1,681,060	100.0

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Hiroshima Prefecture Prosperous Industries

Hiroshima Prefecture is situated in estern Japan on the beautiful inland a of Seto and has a number of sea- orts. This is responsible for the de- elopment of various industries in iroshima, which above all is important r Japan's foreign trade and emigra- on.

INDUSTRIES

	Yearly Output	Percentage
Manufacturing	¥172,596,000	62.2%
Farming	70,230,000	25.9
Forestry	9,455,000	3.5
Fishing	9,399,000	3.5
Stock raising ...	8,242,000	3.0
Sericulture	6,874,000	2.5
Mining	990,000	0.4
Total	277,789,000	100.0

The following are the staple products f Hiroshima :

	Yearly Output
Sake (rice wine)	¥20,190,000
Cotton fabrics	10,414,000
Rayon yarn	5,500,000
Matting	3,880,000
Rubber goods	2,825,000
Canned goods	2,704,000
Sewing needles	1,500,000
Dye stuffs	1,440,000

(*The figures are for* 1927)

STAPLE EXPORTS

CANNED GOODS—Hiroshima Prefecture is the second largest producer f canned goods in Japan. The more mportant are beef, shell fish, fruits nd vegetables.

RUBBER GOODS—Her rubber goods hiefly shoes, tires, cushions, and water-proof cloth, go to China, India, nd the South Seas.

SEWING NEEDLES—Hiroshima puts ut 90% of the total production of apan. Its products are reputed as ood as British and German needles nd are exported to China, India, the outh Seas and the United States.

DYE STUFFS—The dye stuffs manu- actured in Hiroshima are mostly black ut her basic dyes of violet are inter- ationally famous.

EMIGRANTS

Japanese emigrants abroad go very argely from Hiroshima Prefecture. Those who had emigrated from Hiro- shima numbered 67,878 at the end of 1928, and they are distributed in 36 different countries of the world. For instance, there are 27,000 in Hawaii, 33,900 in the United States mainland, 6,400 in Brazil, 2,600 in the Philippines, 2,300 in Canada, 1,900 in China, and 1,600 in Peru. Since July 1927 the Emigration Association, capitalized at ¥200,000, has been actively engaged in encouraging emigration from Hiro- shima.

HIROSHIMA ORANGES

The cultivation of oranges is very successful in Hiroshima because of its climate and soil. Orange plantations there amount to 4,900 acres, producing 50,000,000 lbs. of oranges annually. These oranges are in large measure Unshu oranges (very much like tangerines) and navel oranges. The early Unshu of Hiroshima are unique in flavor and are more and more in favour with foreigners. Orange cultivation centers round Toyoda-gun, or more especially Ocho-mura of Toyoda-gun, where 95% of the total yield is raised. Unshu and lemons produced there are presented to the Imperial Household every year.

PLEASURE RESORTS IN THE PREFECTURE

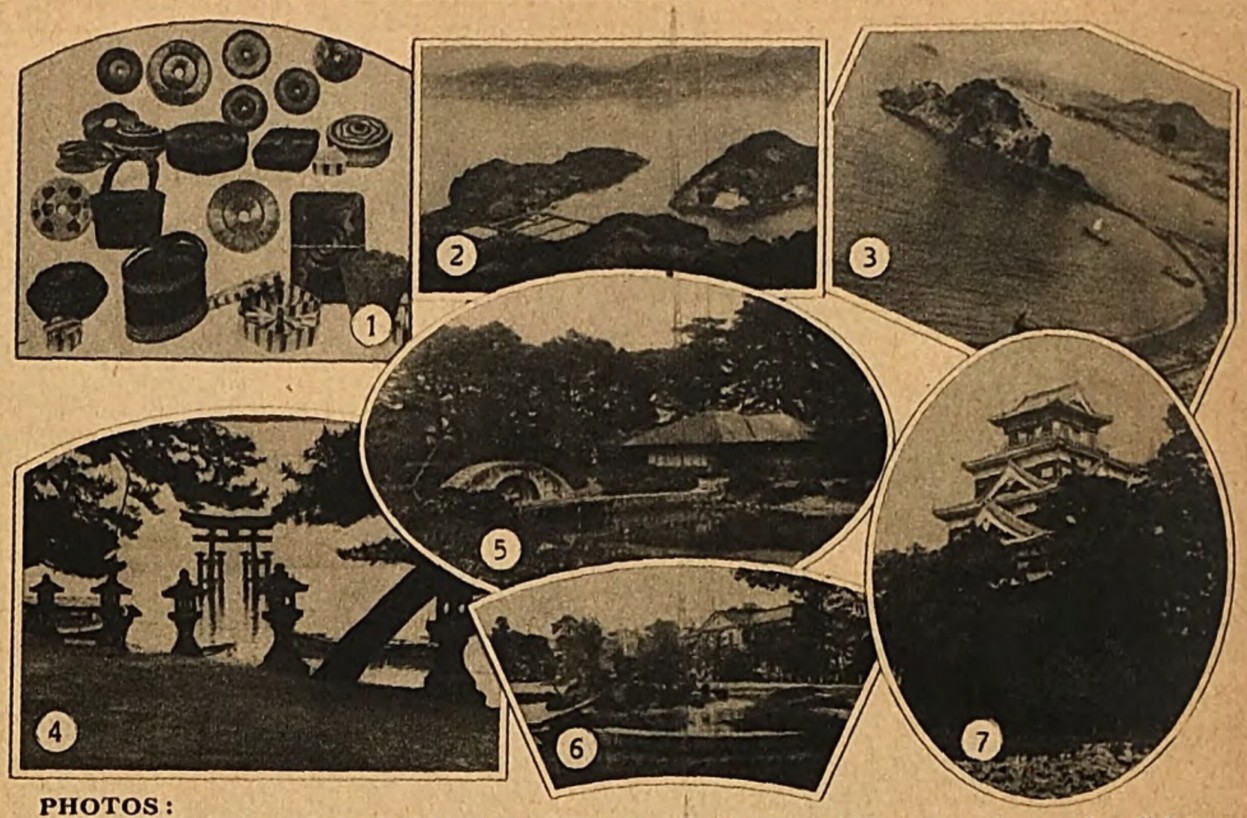
The Inland Sea coasting districts are known throughout the world for their beautiful scenery. Miyajima is one of the three most beautiful places in Japan. The Itsukushima Shrine there is specially protected by the government on account of its historic value. There are seven isles in the Bay called Tomo-no Ura, such as Sensui, Benten, Kogo, Tamatsu, Tsugaru, Sutsuji, etc. People visit these isles and appreciate the picturesque views. The netting of *tai* (sea bream) is a feature of the place.

HIROSHIMA CITY

Hiroshima City has a population of 260,000 persons and is the center for the commercial and industrial activities of western Japan. Recently a large-scale extension plan has been launched by this city, and the improvement of the port has been set about first of all as a part of the scheme. It will not be many years before the project is fully realized, as the people of the city are enthusiastic over it. It is safe to say that the city promises to greatly increase its standing as an industrial center, because it is favoured with an abundant supply of electricity, easy access to cheap Kyushu coal and brisk foreign trade.

THE FOREIGN TRADE OF HIROSHIMA

The city of Hiroshima exports through the ports of Ujina, Shimonoseki, Osaka, and Kobe, canned goods, saké, marine products, oranges, cotton yarn and cloth, rayon, whipped cotton, rubber goods, sewing needles, umbrellas, footwear, cardboard, matting, fancy matting, etc. to Asiatic Russia, Manchuria, China, Hongkong, India, the South Seas, Hawaii, and the United States. The city also imports through the same channels, rice, soja beans, bean cake, peanuts, beef, raw cotton, woollen stuffs, timber, rubber, oil and general merchandise, from Asiatic Russia, Manchuria, China, Hongkong, British India, French Indo-China, the South Seas, Canada, the United States, Hawaii, Australia, Argentine, etc. The total amount of the foreign trade of the city exceeds twenty million yen a year. This trade will, in the future, be handled directly in the city after the improvement of the Port of Hiroshima, the deepening of rivers, and the perfection of connections between the San-in and San-yo railways. Trade will increase with the development of industry in the city, and the opening up of the hinterland.



PHOTOS:
1. Nukii's patented goods for export: Bush and straw braid ware, and mats for dishes.
2. An Orange Orchard near Ochomura, Toyoda-Gori, in Hiroshima Prefecture.
3. A View of Tomo-no-Ura.
4. The great Torii in front of Itsukushima Shrine, one of the Three Most Beautiful Spots in Japan.
5. Sentei, Residence of Marquis Asano in Hiroshima City.
6. Old Site of the Imperial Headquarters at Hiroshima during the Sino-Japanese War.
7. Old Site of Hiroshima Castle.

VISIT ITSUKUSHIMA ON THE MIYAJIMA ELECTRIC RAILWAY

Sight-seeing in Hiroshima city and Itsukushima is best done on the electric railway managed by the Hiroshima Electric Railway Company. On its Miyajima line it runs super-speed bogie cars. The well-arranged schedule obviates long waits. From the terminus, motor boats carry passengers to the Shrine on the island. Visitors to Itsukushima have been afforded great convenience and comfort by the opening of the Miyajima railway.

THE HIROSHIMA GAS, ELECTRICITY & RAILWAY CO.

Sanchome, Otemachi, Hiroshima City.

EXPORTERS OF TYPICAL JAPANESE PRODUCTS ALL SORTS OF REED AND STRAW GOODS

Our reed and straw goods are new and beautiful in shade, shape and design. They are specially made to appeal to the taste of Americans and Europeans. Some 10,000,000 pieces are yearly exported abroad.

NUKUI SEII
Higashi Kasumi-cho, Fukuyama

KAWAMURA'S VAPORIZER

A highly reputed vaporizer, made with the most elaborate machinery by the skilled workmen.

KAWAMURA MANUFACTORY
Sumiyoshi-cho, Fukuyama.
Kawamura Eiichi

FUKUYAMA PAPER MANUFACTURING CO.

IN FRONT OF FUKUYAMA STATION
PRESIDENT: TANAKA HACHIKURO

Our paper excels any other paper made in Japan. "Kutoku Ita" is an ideal board for ceilings.

FUJII YOICHIEMON

Fukuyama

A new and prominent figure in Japanese brewing who is interested in other industries as follows:
President, Nippon Timber Co., Ltd.
President, Fukuyama Electric Co., Ltd.
President, Imperial FishingNet Co., Ltd.
Director, Showa Koshin Kaisha, Ltd.

SUPERIOR "SHREDDED DRIED BONITO" EXCELLENT SEASONING FOR JAPANESE DISHES

It saves the cook and the housewife a lot of work in the kitchen.

ANBE WASUKE
Sannomaru-cho, Fukuyama

SEIBI TWISTED NET CO., LTD.

Nobehiro-cho, Fukuyama
President, Kobayashi Shogyoku.
Capital Y1,000,000

Our knotless twisted net, a new Japanese invention, is patented in Japan and fifteen other countries. It is used for fishing and various other purposes, and the demand for it is ever growing.

Capital - -Yen 18,200,000

THE GEIBI BANK

Kamiya-cho, Hiroshima.

President:
SHIOKAWA SANSHIRO

Managing Director:
HIKOKURO ARIMURA

SAILOR
FOUNTAIN PEN

The "SAILOR" fountain-pen is so well and carefully made that we have on hesitation in offering you guaranty that it goes far beyond any other pen, ever made in quality and cerviceability.
The "SAILOR" is specially designed and in lovely style. The gold band on the cap well protect it from splitting.
We fit our pens with special gold nibs according to the requirements in writing of the every country in the world.

TRADE MARK

The Sailor Fountain-Pen Mfg. Co.
Head Office & Works: KURE CITY.
SAKATA SEISAKUSHO

Osaka Branch of the Tamura Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd.
1-Chome, Andojibashi-dori, Minami-ku, Osaka.
Head Office: MISAKI-MACHI, HIROSHIMA CITY
Branches: SHANGHAI, TIENTSIN, SEOUL

ARABIAN, WELLINGTON, HUDSON, & ROBINSON

Canvas Shoes

Over Shoes

Pumps Shoes

Rubber Shoes ..... Annual output, three million pairs
Sewing needles ..... „ „ one billion and 500 million

The company is recognized as the leading needle manufacturer in Japan, for both quantity and quality.

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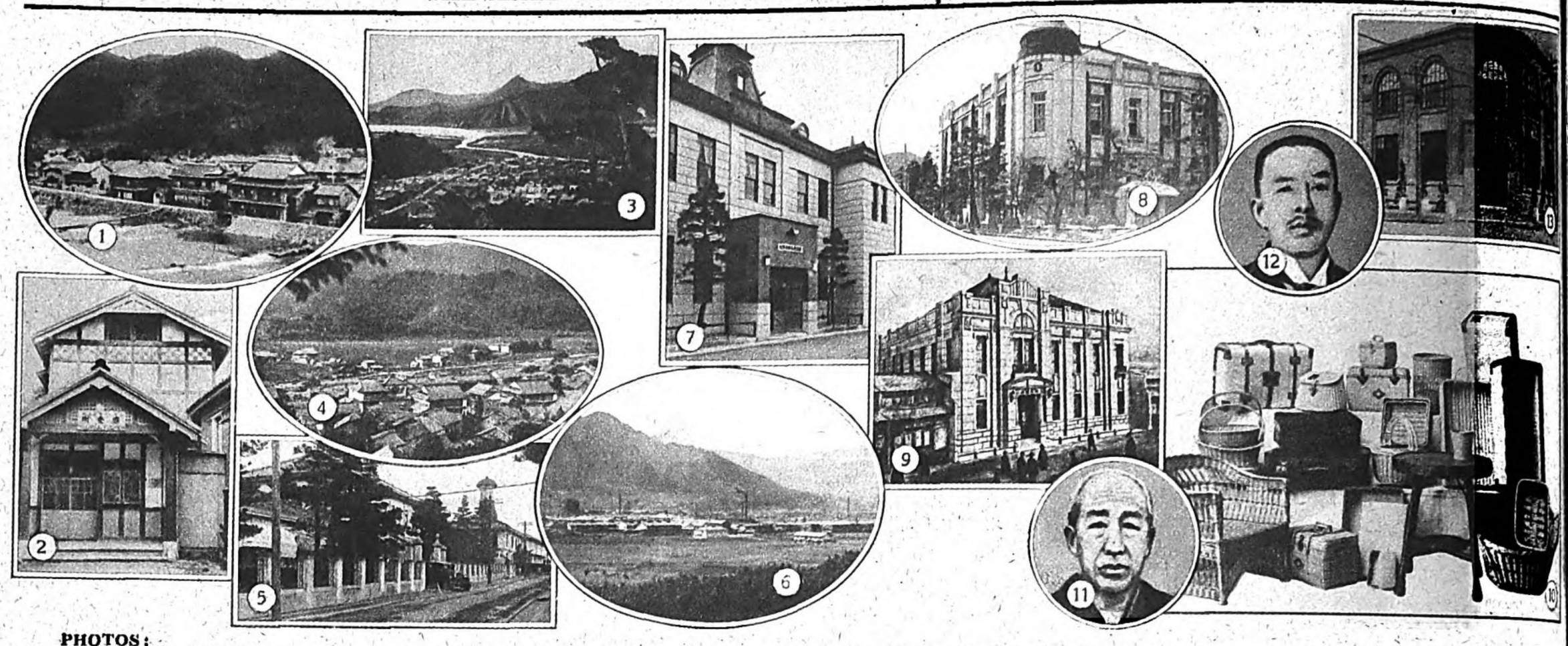


PHOTOS:
1. Misasa hot springs
2. Sanitarium managed by the village authorities of Misasa
3. Kinosaki hot springs
4. Iwai hot springs
5. Main office of the Gunze Filatures
6. A part of the factory of the Gunze Filatures
7. Main office of the Izumo Electric Co.
8. Main office of the Yonago Bank
9. Main office of the Matsue Bank
10. Willow manufactures of Toyooka
11. Mr. Nakamura Jisaku
12. Mr. Torii Bunemon
13. Tango Commercial and Industrial Bank
14. Mr. Ashida Sakichi
15. Mr. Ashida Mitsuru
16. Mr. Orihara Manjiro
17. Mr. Kataoka Kyubei
18. Mr. Watanabe Yazo

A General View of the San-indo Showing Increased Industrial Activities 1.

The San-Indo is in the middle of the country facing the Sea of Japan. Various enterprises in the San-indo are known for their solidarity and conservatism, but recently some modern elements have been introduced into them, so that they have assumed quite a new aspect. Below are introduced briefly some of the enterprises and general features of the district.

REELING INDUSTRY

The San-indo people are quite devoted to sericulture and reeling.

The chief companies connected with the industry are :

1. The Ashida Co. The company is situated at Fukuchiyama, Kyoto Prefecture. The president is Mr. Sakichi Ashida, and the managing director is his son, Mr. Mitsuru Ashida. He is a graduate of Keio University. The company produces all kinds of sericultural supplies, as well as rice threshing machines, mimeograph outfits, etc.

2. The Saiki Reeling Co., and the San-In Reeling Co. These companies are situated at Kurayoshicho, Tottori Prefecture. They are known for producing the best yarns in the Kwansai district of Japan.

3. The Gunze Reeling Co. This company is called the king of reeling.

It has a capital of ¥20,660,000.

It has thirty factories with 8,362 ovens, and 16,000 employees. The head office is at Ayabe-Machi, Kyoto Prefecture.

DISTINGUISHED PERSONAGES IN THE SAN-INDO.

Mr. Kyubei Kataoka. Mr. Kataoka is a well-known dry-goods merchant at Fukuchiyama. He is the head of the Jikyu Bank. His son, Mr. Kyuya, who is a graduate of the Tokyo Commercial College manages the business of the firm.

Mr. Yazo Watanabe. Mr. Watanabe enjoys the fame of having opened the city of Maizuru. At present he is the president of the Tango Marine Products Co., which is famous in the canning industry.

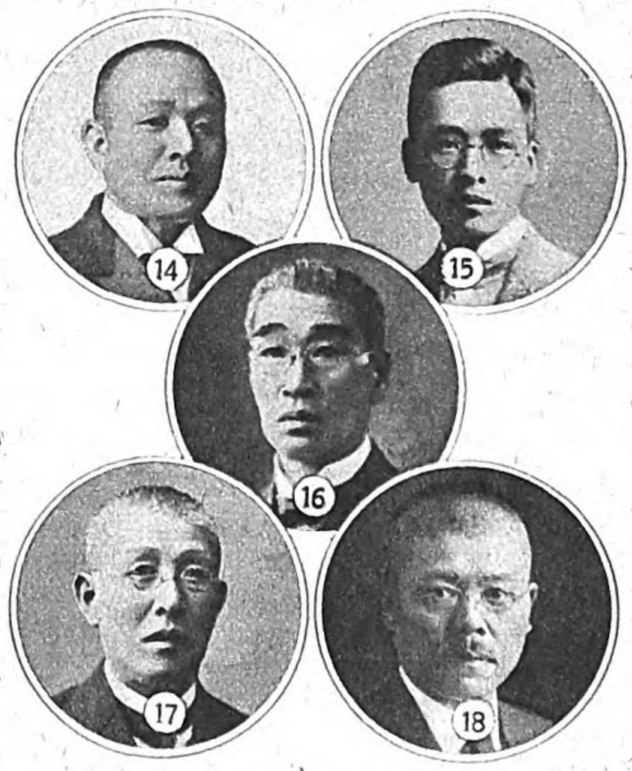
PRODUCTION OF CREPE

The province of Tango is famous for the production of crepe its output reaching seventy per cent. of the total output. The Crepe Refining Co. is the best known company, with Mr. Jisaku Nakamura as president, and Mr. Bunemon Torii as managing director. The company is situated at Mineyamacho.

BANKING

The Tango Shoko Bank in Mineyama-cho is the only monetary organ in the Northern part of Tango Province. Mr. Soemon Terada is the president, Mr. Jisaku Nakamura the managing director, and Mr. Hideji Tanaka the manager.

The Yonago Bank is the pioneer banking institution in San-indo. Thanks to the able management of its directors, the Bank enjoys the fame of being the greatest bank in the prefecture in credit and assets. It was established in 1894. At present its capital is ¥3,000,000, with deposits amounting to ¥20,000,000.



The Matsue Bank is known as one of the best banks in the San-Indo. Its capital is ¥9,500,000 and Mr. Taketaro Itohara, member of the Upper House, is its president.

The Unyo Industrial Bank is a new bank in Matsue, and enjoys the reputation of being one of the most up-to-date banks in the San-indo.

HOT SPRINGS

The famous hot springs in Tottori Prefecture are Iwai, Utani, Toshioka, Hamamura, Katsumi, Matsuzaki, Togo, Misasa and Kaike. These hot springs lead all the hot springs in Japan in the amount of radium their waters contain. The Misasa Hot spring, according to investigations made by the Home Department, is the greatest radium hot spring in the Orient, and in the quality of its radium, it comes second in the list of all the hot springs in the world.

The Kinosaki hot spring in the Prefecture of Hyogo is known for the perfection of its equipment and its treatment of guests.

The Iwai hot spring is rich in historical interest.

WILLOW GOODS

Willow goods are Produced at Toyooka-machi in the Prefecture of Hyogo. The chief goods made of willow are baskets, trunks, tiffin-baskets, chairs, tables, etc.

ELECTRIC POWER

The Izumo Electric Co., with its headquarters in Matsue, is the greatest company of the sort in the San-Indo. Its capital is ¥10,100,000. The President is Mr. Manjiro Orihara, and the managing director Mr. Rokusaburo Suzuki. Electric current is supplied over a very extensive area.

A GREAT SANDHILL

There is a very big sandhill one mile distant from the city of Tottori. The sand consists of quarts and mica.

High Class "Crown" Fountain-pens

"Crown" Ink, the Best Ink for Fountain-pens.

"Kikusui" Ink, the Best Ink for writing.

The Sawai & Co.

Sanchome, Andojibashi Dori, Minamiku, Osaka.

Catalogues sent on request.

HANNAN RUBBER CO., LTD. is an old establishment and its products have the best reputation in Japan.

TRADE MARK

KINDS OF ARTICLES
Child's pump with design, Deck shoes, Canvas sport shoes (with heels and no heel), Pump shoes, Crepe soled sport shoes and all the other Kinds of rubber shoes.

Manufacturers and Exporters,

HANNAN RUBBER CO., LTD.

5 Chome, Shiojidori, Nishinariku, Osaka.

Catalogue Sent on application.

TRADE MARK

PATENTED OKADA TYPE MIMEOGRAPH

Champion of Mimeographs Enterprise Started in 1900

OKADA TOSHA-DO HONTEN

KATAHARA-MACHI SANCHOME, TOTTORI CITY

Phone 510 (L.D.)

OFFICE:

TOKYO—10, Omote-Jimbo-cho, Kanda-ku.
OSAKA—Sonezaki Naka Itchome, Kita-ku.
KEIJO (Chosen)—13 Kita-Yonekura-cho.
Dairen, Mukden, Tsingtao, Shanghai & Tientsin.

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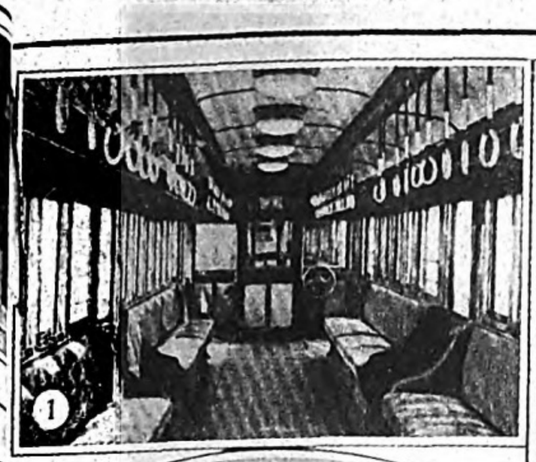
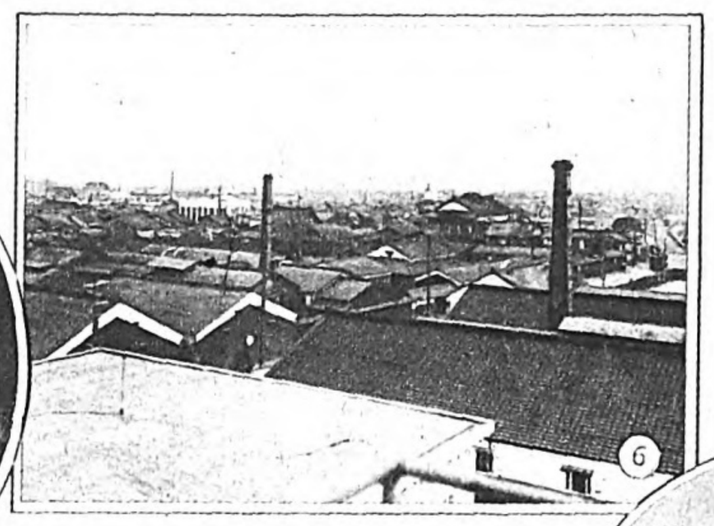
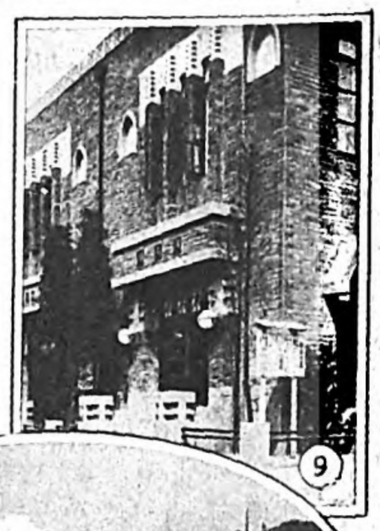
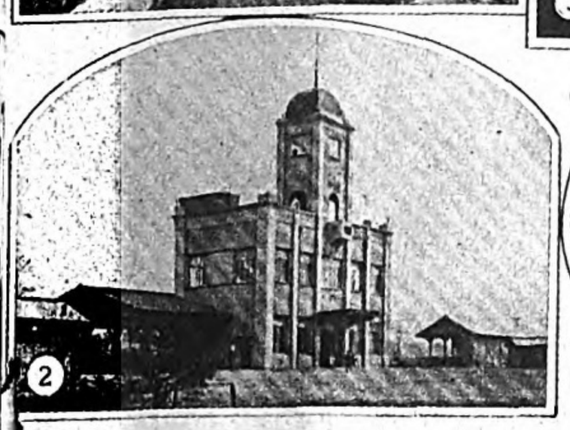
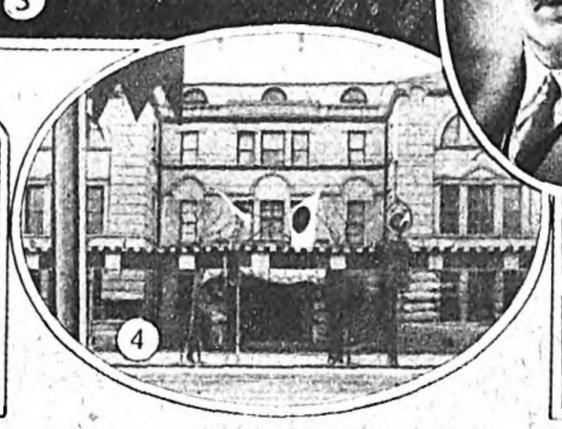
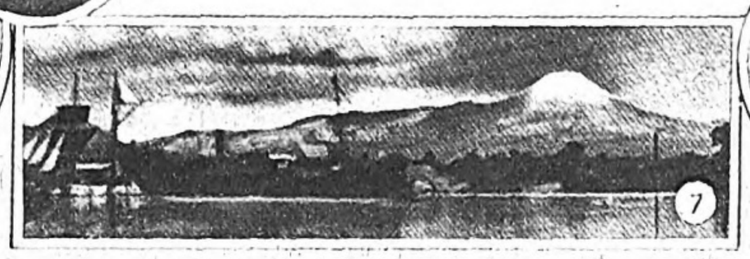


PHOTOS:
1. Inside one of the cars of the Ichihata Electric Railway Co.
2. Kita Matsuye Station
3. Fukuchiyama
4. Kyoto Chamber of Commerce and Industry
5. Mr. Osawa Tokutaro, chairman of the Kyoto Chamber of Commerce and Industry
6. City of Fushimi
7. Port of Yonago and Mt. Taisen
8. City of Matsuye and the "Mt. Fuji" of Izumo
9. Fushimi Library (planned and constructed by the Masuda-gumi)

A General View of the San-indo 2.

BANKING AT FUKUCHIYAMA

Fukuchiyama, in Kyoto Prefecture, known for the prosperity of its commerce. The following banks are regarded as the great financial organs of the place. The Fukuchiyama Bank (Chief Director, Mr. Hanbei Takagi, Head of the Fukuchiyama Town Council); the Jikyu Bank (Chief Director, Mr. Kyubei Kataoka), which once saved Fukuchiyama from an economic crisis; the Fukuchiyama Branch of the 137th Bank which much influence in Hyogo and Kyoto Prefectures. The Chief Director of the Bank is Mr. Kumataro Nishisaka and Mr. Motozo Nishizaka is at the head of the Fukuchiyama Branch. The Takagi Bank (Mr. Takagi Heibei, Director) is under excellently organized management.

CITIES, TOWNS AND PROMINENT MEN, AND THEIR ENTERPRISES

YONAGO.—The city of Yonago is situated in the central part of the San-indo. Its commerce is very prosperous. It produces raw silk, agricultural implements, Hoshoji porcelain, etc.

FUSHIMI.—The city of Fushimi is known for the presence of the Mausoleum of the Emperor Meiji. The products of the place are saké, mirin or sweet saké, fans etc. It has a number of places famous for beautiful scenery and their historical interest. It can be reached in a little over ten minutes from Kyoto.

Mr. Masakichi Hashimoto is a distinguished citizen of the city of Fushimi. He is the proprietor of the saké and provision stores at Nayamachi. He has climbed to his present high position from a very low social rank. He is a very charitable man, and is well known as the contributing of large sums for public works. He does not drink saké, although he derives some of his profits from the liquor. He is a man of independence of character and does not like fame or public offices of honor.

MATSUE.—The city of Matsue is the centre from which ancient culture started. It has a castle, which was occupied by the Lords of the Province, the Matsudairas. The city is situated on Lake Shinji. Lafcadio Hearn used to reside at there. It has many places of historic interest.

THE KYOTO CHAMBER OF COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY.—The present Head of the chamber is Mr. Tokutaro Osawa. The Chamber acts as mediator and arbitrator in commercial disputes. It introduces and advertises the products of the place. It also has a fine library.

SHIMANE PREFECTURE.—In Shimane Prefecture, agriculture is most prosperous the raising of oxen and hens, sericulture, the production of rice are especially noteworthy. Saké, Japanese soy, Izumo porcelain, and marine products are famous products of the prefecture. The prefecture is one of the few prefectures in which there are dense forests, so that forest administration has progressed their since early times. The prefectural enterprise of charcoal production is very popular as a new and novel enterprise.

MAIZURU-MACHI.—The Katsuraya Drug Co. in this town sells "Tenju," an efficacious cure for coughs. It is known throughout the country. A special "Tenju" is prepared for infants. The medicine is put up in seven different ways ranging in price from twenty sen to five yen.

TOYOOKA-MACHI.—The representative merchant of the town is Mr. K. Endo. His stores sell willow baskets, willow trunks, and bamboo goods.

The Yamazaki Coal Co. of Osaka furnishes the greater portion of the coal consumed in the San-Indo. The head of the company is Mr. Masayo Yamazaki and the manager is Mr. Mojuro Moriya. Mr. Teruchika Yamazaki started the business.

The Japan Reeling Co. is situated in Yonago. The president of the company is Mr. Heibei Sakaguchi, one of the pioneers in the reeling industry of Japan.

The Tottori Saké Brewing Co. at Tottori, produces the famous "Kimitsukasa" saké. Mr. Kokichi Kojima, is the president and Mr. Kotani is the managing director of the company.

The Ichihata Electric Railway connects Matsue, Ichihata-Yakushi and Izumo Shrine. It runs through many places of historic interest and much beautiful scenery. The Railway company runs high speed electric trains. By taking these trains you can see almost all parts of the province of Izumo. It passes along the north coast of Lake Shinji, and connects with the Government Railways San-in Line at Matsue and Imaichi in Izumo. The company has a capital of two million yen. Mr. Yakichi Otani is its president.

The Hokutan Railway connects Fukuchiyama and Kawamori, running through beautiful scenery for a distance of eight miles. The company has its headquarters at Fukuchiyama.

The Masuda-Gumi at Fushimi is a contracting company for engineering and architectural work. The president, Mr. Isaburo Masuda, first started the business as a private concern in 1892. He has acquired fame for his insistence on strict morality in engineering contracts. Mr. Matsujiro Masuda is the managihg director and Messrs. Einosuke Masuda and Kiichi Miyanaga are directors.

The Kojima Bunkaido of Osaka, Book Publishers, is managed by Mr. Jutaro Kojima. He has made great contributions to the advancement of culture in the San-indo.

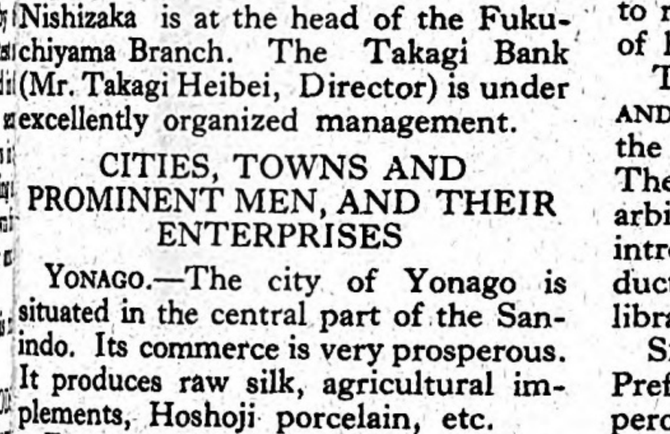
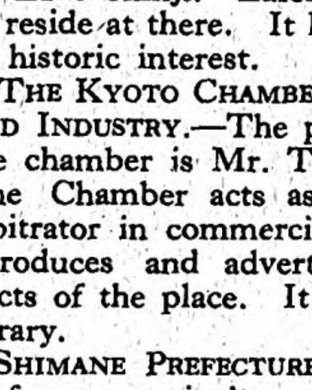
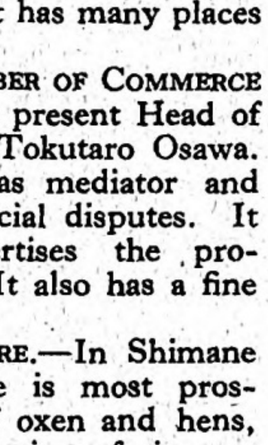
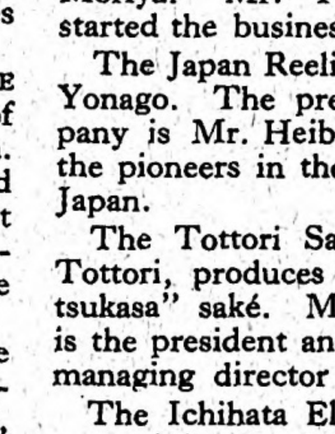
THE IKUNO RUBBER FACTORY

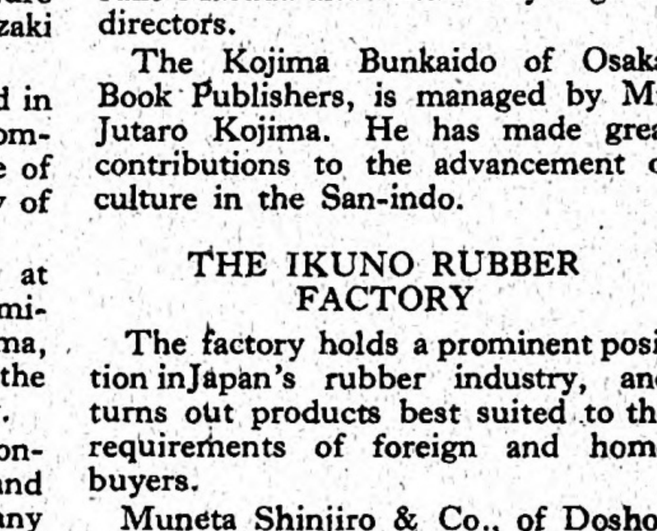
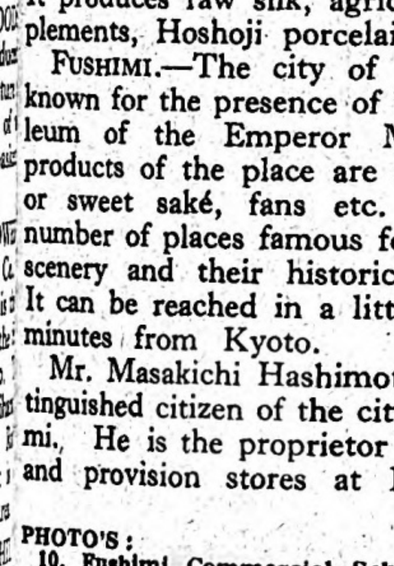
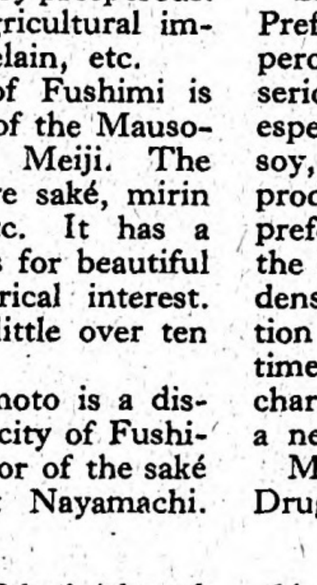
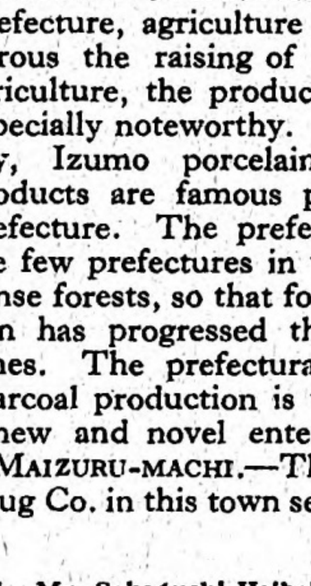
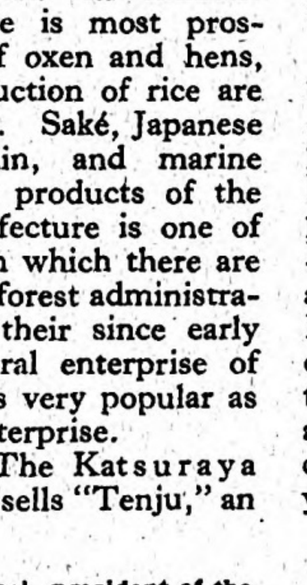
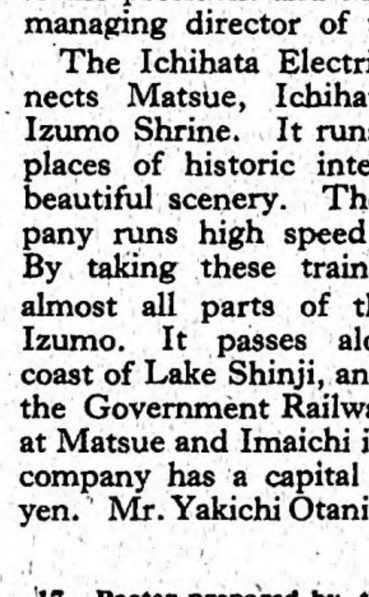
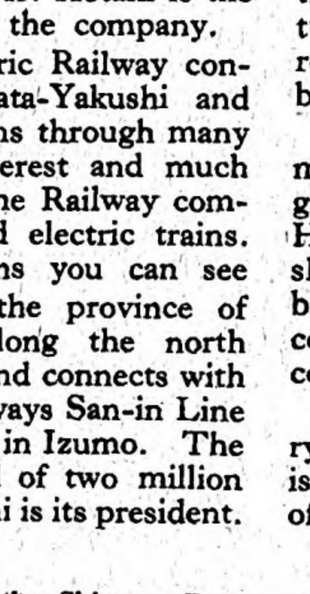
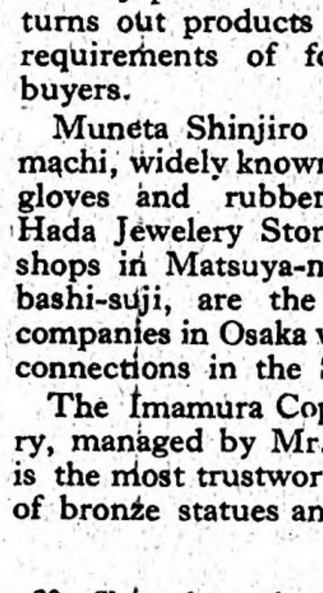
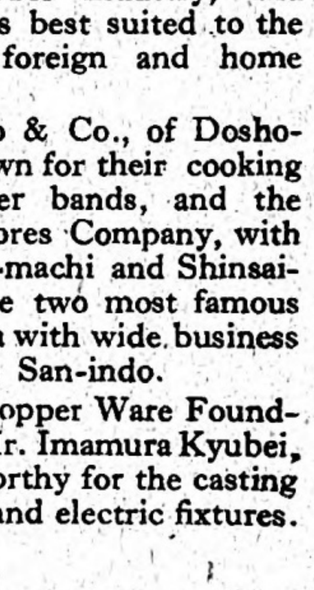
The factory holds a prominent position in Japan's rubber industry, and turns out products best suited to the requirements of foreign and home buyers.

Muneta Shinjiro & Co., of Doshomachi, widely known for their cooking gloves and rubber bands, and the Hada Jewelery Stores Company, with shops in Matsuya-machi and Shinsaibashi-suji, are the two most famous companies in Osaka with wide business connections in the San-indo.

The Imamura Copper Ware Foundry, managed by Mr. Imamura Kyubei, is the most trustworthy for the casting of bronze statues and electric fixtures.

PHOTO'S:
10. Fushimi Commercial School (planned and constructed by the Masuda-gumi)
11. Business office of the Yamazaki Briquet Factory
12. Mr. Hashimoto Masakichi
13. Chief factories of the Nippon Silk Manufacturing Co.
14. Mr. Sakaguchi Heibei, president of the Nippon Silk Manufacturing Co.
15. Mr. Yamazaki Masayo, president of the Yamazaki Briquet Factory
16. Mr. Moriya Mojuro, managing director of the Yamazaki Briquet Factory
17. Poster prepared by the Shimane Prefectural authorities for their charcoal monopoly
18. Trade mark of the Katsuraya Pharmacy, famous for its cough drops
19. "Kimitsukasa" label of the Tottori Saké Brewery
20. Show-places along the Hokutan Steam Line
21. Mr. Kojima, president of the Kojima Bunkaido Publishing Co.
22. Mr. Namikawa Takeo, president of the Ikuno Rubber Manufactory
23. Mr. Muneta Shinjiro
24. Mr. Hada Chubei

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President - - - - HAYAMI TARO
Managing Director - - SHIZUNO NAOFUMI

Lamps Installed	248,000
Power	54,000 h.p.
Heat	1,500,000 k.w.

The
Okayama Electric Light Co., Ltd.

Capital - - - - Yen 10,000,000

President - - - - HAYAMI TARO
Managing Director - - DOI SHUJI

Lamps Installed	192,000
Power	3,400 h.p.

THE CHUGOKU GODO ELECTRIC CO., LTD.

Capital : Yen 30,000,000

President :
SAKANO TETSUJIRO
Vice-President :
USHIO UMEKICHI

MAIN OFFICE:
Kaminishikawa-cho, Okayama.

BRANCH OFFICE:
Okuramae-cho, Himeji.

CAPACITY		SUPPLY	
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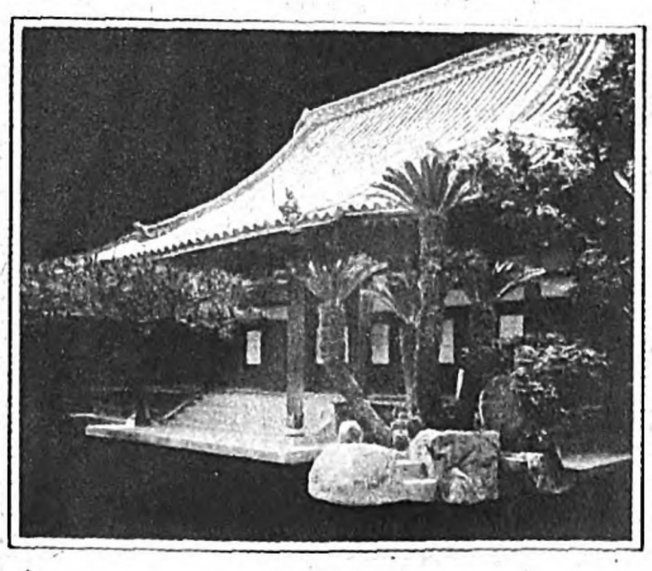

SAIYOJI TEMPLE

TADANOUMI-CHO, HIROSHIMA-KEN.

Chief Priest :
Wakabayashi Hoyen
Pharmacist :
Fujiwara Kogi

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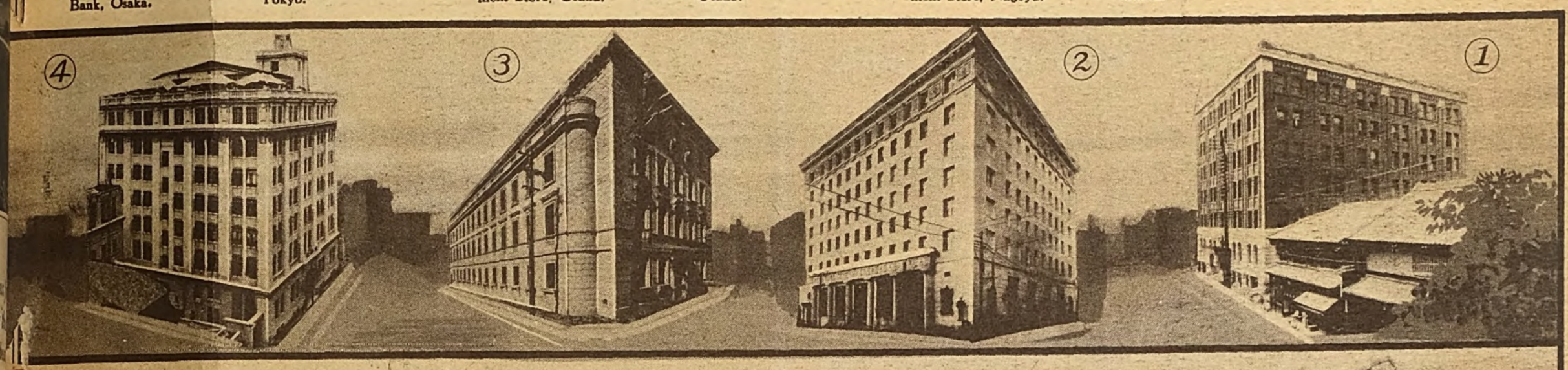
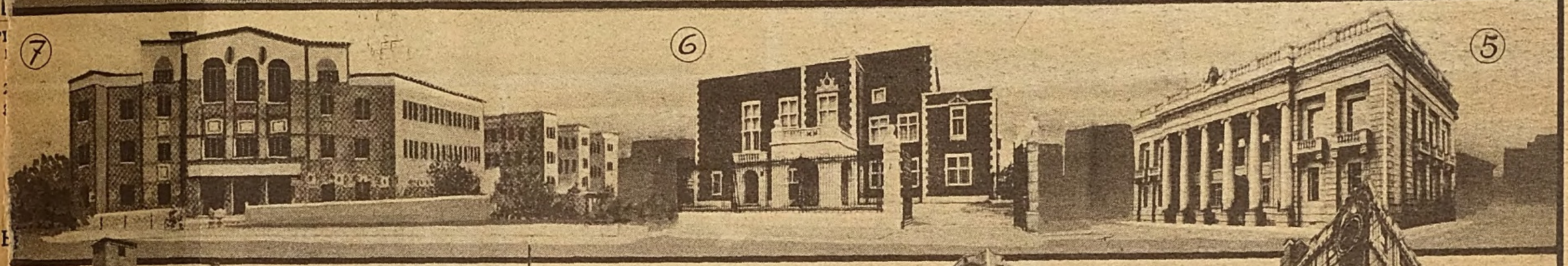
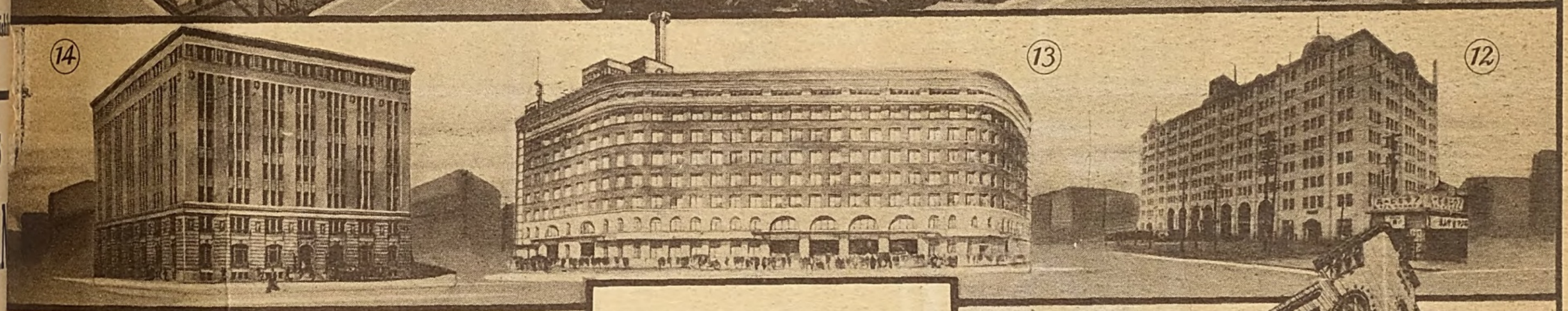
2 The Nomura Bank, Osaka.
3 The Yokohama Specie Bank, Osaka.
4 The Meikai-Building, Kobe.
5 The Mitsui Bank, Kobe.
6 The Peer's Club, Tokyo.
7 The Doai Memory Hospital, Tokyo.
8 The Daimaru Department Store, Osaka.
9 The Takashimaya Department Store, Osaka.
10 The Mitsukoshi Department Store, Osaka.
11 The Nagoya Bank, Nagoya.
12 The Dojima Building, Osaka.
13 The Hankyu Building, Osaka.
14 The Teikoku Life Insurance Co., Ltd., Tokyo.
15 The Matsuzakaya Department Store, Nagoya.
16 The Daido Life Insurance Building, Osaka.
17 The Matsuzakaya Department Store, Tokyo.
18 The Yamaguchi Bank, Osaka.
19 The Tokyo Asahi Shimbunsha.
20 The Asahi Hall, Osaka.
21 The Osaka Asahi Shimbunsha.







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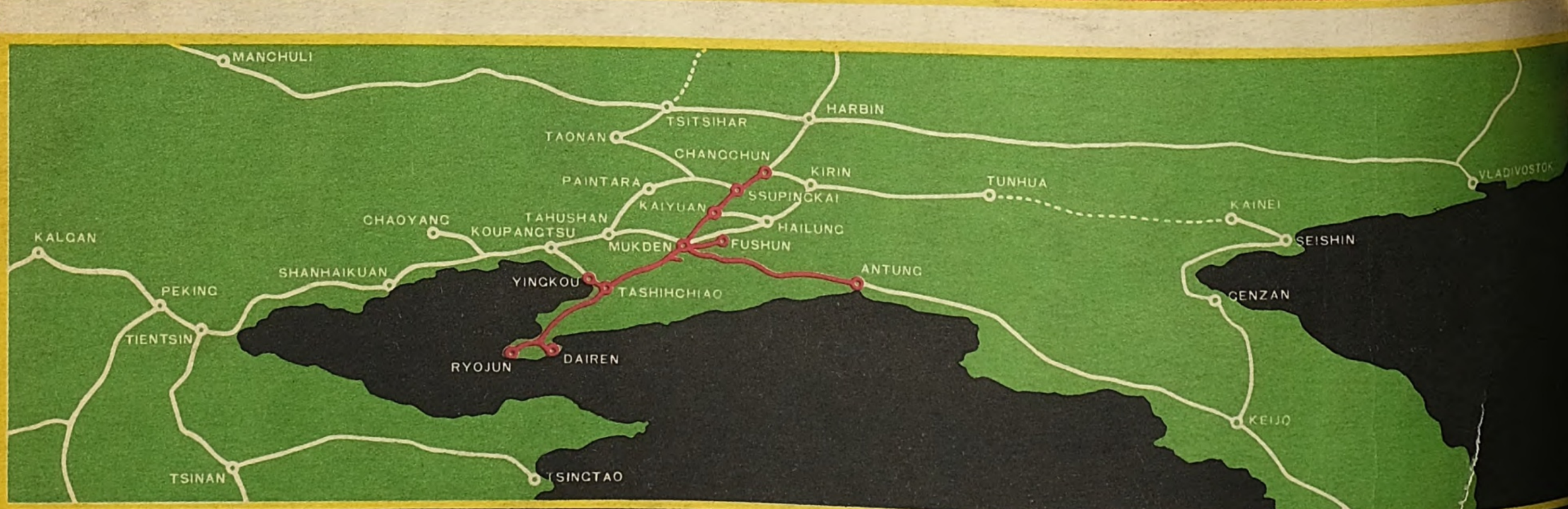

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